THE WAR *in* EUROPE

ITS CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES

ROSSITER JOHNSON

THE CLASH OF NATIONS

THE WAR IN EUROPE

ITS CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES

An authentic narrative of the immediate and remote causes of the war, with a descriptive account of the countries involved, including statistics of armies, navies, aeroplanes, dirigibles, &c., &c. Profusely illustrated from latest photographs, engravings, diagrams and maps

Edited by
ROSSITER JOHNSON, Ph.D., LL.D.
Editor of "Great Events in History," "Appleton's Encyclopedia," &c.

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THE FRANCO-GERMAN FRONTIER.

This relief map of the frontier indicates the nature of the terrain as well as the position of fortresses and lines of communication.

ATLANTIC
OCEAN
NORTH SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
BAY OF BISCAY
SHETLAND IS.
ORKNEY IS.
HEBRIDES
SCOTLAND
ABERDEEN
DUNDEE
EDINBURGH
IRELAND
WESTPORT
BELFAST
DUBLIN
CORK
CARLISLE
NEWCASTLE
LIVERPOOL
HULL
WALES
ENGLAND
BIRMINGHAM
YARMOUTH
HARWICH
PEMBROKE
CARDIFF
LONDON
DEVONPORT
WEYMOUTH
PORTSMOUTH
DOVER
PLYMOUTH
NORWAY
BERGEN
CHRISTIANIA
DRAMMEN
SKIEN
ARENDAL
CHRISTIANSAND
SKAGER RAK
DENMARK
HELGOLAND
WILHELMSHAVEN
HARLINGEN
AMSTERDAM
ROTTERDAM
NETHERLANDS
ARNHEIM
OSNABRUCK
BREMEN
HAMBURG
LUBECK
HANOVER
MAGDEBURG
CASSEL
WESEL
COLOGNE
COBLENZ
FRANKFORT
MAINZ
MANNHEIM
GERMERSHEIM
KARLSRUHE
STUTTGART
AUGSBURG
MUNICH
BELGIUM
BRUSSELS
LILLE
DOUAI
MAUBEUGE
MEZIERES
LAON
SEDAN
LUXEMBURG
VERDUN
RHEIMS
CHALONS
NANCY
TOUL
LUNEVILLE
EPINAL
STRASSBURG
COLMAR
MULHAUSEN
BELFORT
BASEL
BERN
SWITZERLAND
GENEVA
LYONS
BRIANCON
MARSEILLES
TOULON
NICE
CUNEO
GENOA
MILAN
TURIN
MANTUA
LEGNAGO
PARMA
FERRAR
LUCA
FLORENCE
LEGMORN
GROSSETO
ORBETELLO
CORSICA
AJACCIO
ST. OF BONIFACIO
MADDALENA
SASSARI
SARDINIA
CAGLIARI
BALEARIC ISLES
FRANCE
PARIS
CHERBOURG
BREST
RENNES
ORIENT
ORLEANS
NANTES
TOURS
LANGRES
DIJON
BESANCON
ROCHEFORT
CLERMONT
PERIGUEUX
BORDEAUX
RODEZ
PAU
NARBONNE
PAMPLONA
BARCELONA
TORTOSA
VALENCIA
CORDOBA
GRANADA
CARTAGENA
CADIZ
GIBRALTAR
ST. OF GIBRALTAR
MELILLA
ORAN
ALGIERS
BONA
BIZERTA
TUNIS
MEDITER
FERROL
SANTANDER
OPORTO
PORTUGAL
LISBON
SPAIN
MADRID
FORTIFIED TOWNS

PETROGRAD
HELSINGFORS
VIBORG
CRONSTADT
ÅBO
SVEABORG
ALAND IS.
HANGO
REVAL
NARVA
UPSALA
STOCKHOLM
OREBRO
OSEL
PSKOV
VISHNI
YAROSLAF
MOSCOW
GOTLAND
RIGA
LIBAU
DVINSK
VIASMA
TULA
KOZLOF
SMOLENSK
KALMAR
HELSINGBORG
MALMO
MEMEL
KOVNO
VILNA
MINSK
BOBRUISK
KONIGSBERG
BOYEN
DANZIG
ELBING
JOHANNISBURG
GRAUDENZ
KOLBERG
DIRSCHAU
DAMM
STETTIN
NEW STRELITZ
BIALYSTOK
THORN
NOVA GEORGIEVSK
PLOCK
WARSAW
POSEN
IVANGOROD
LODZ
RADOM
LUBLIN
VLADIMIR
ROVNO
DUBNO
KIEV
KHARKOV
Dnieper
GLOGAU
LIEGNITZ
BRESLAU
GLATZ
NEISSE
DRESDEN
KRAKOW
PRZEMYSL
LEMBERG
ELISABETGRAD
PRAGUE
MARIENBAD
ODERBERG
PODOLSK
Dniester
KASCHAU
CZERNOWITZ
NICOLAIEV
SEA OF AZOV
KISHINEV
TIRASPOL
ODESSA
KERTCH
LINZ
VIENNA
DEBRECZIN
BUDA
PEST
GYNLA
ARAD
TEMESVAR
HERMANSTADT
KRONSTADT
GALATZ
SEBASTOPOL
MARIA
Drave
NEUSATZ
TRIESTE
FIUME
Save
BUKAREST
KUSTENDJI
BLACK SEA
BANJALUKA
BELGRADE
SEMENDRIA
KRAGOJEVATZ
CRAJOVA
Danube
VARNA
SARAJEVO
NISH
PLEVNA
FOTCHA
SOFIA
PIROT
MONTENEGRO
PHILIPPOPOLIS
ADRIANOPLE
CONSTANTINOPLE
SCUTARI
RAGUSA
CATTARO
CETINJE
SKUTARI
DURAZZO
SALONIKA
GAETA
FOGGIA
NAPLES
BRINDISI
TARANTO
STRAIT OF OTRANTO
SMYRNA
CATANZARO
ATHENS
PIRAEUS
PALERMO
MESSINA
CATANIA
MALTA
VALETTA
CRETE
BALTIC SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
IONIAN SEA
EGEAN SEA
MARMORA SEA
TURKEY
SERVIA
ALBANIA
GREECE
BULGARIA
ROUMANIA
RUSSIA
GERMANY
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
ITALY
SICILY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
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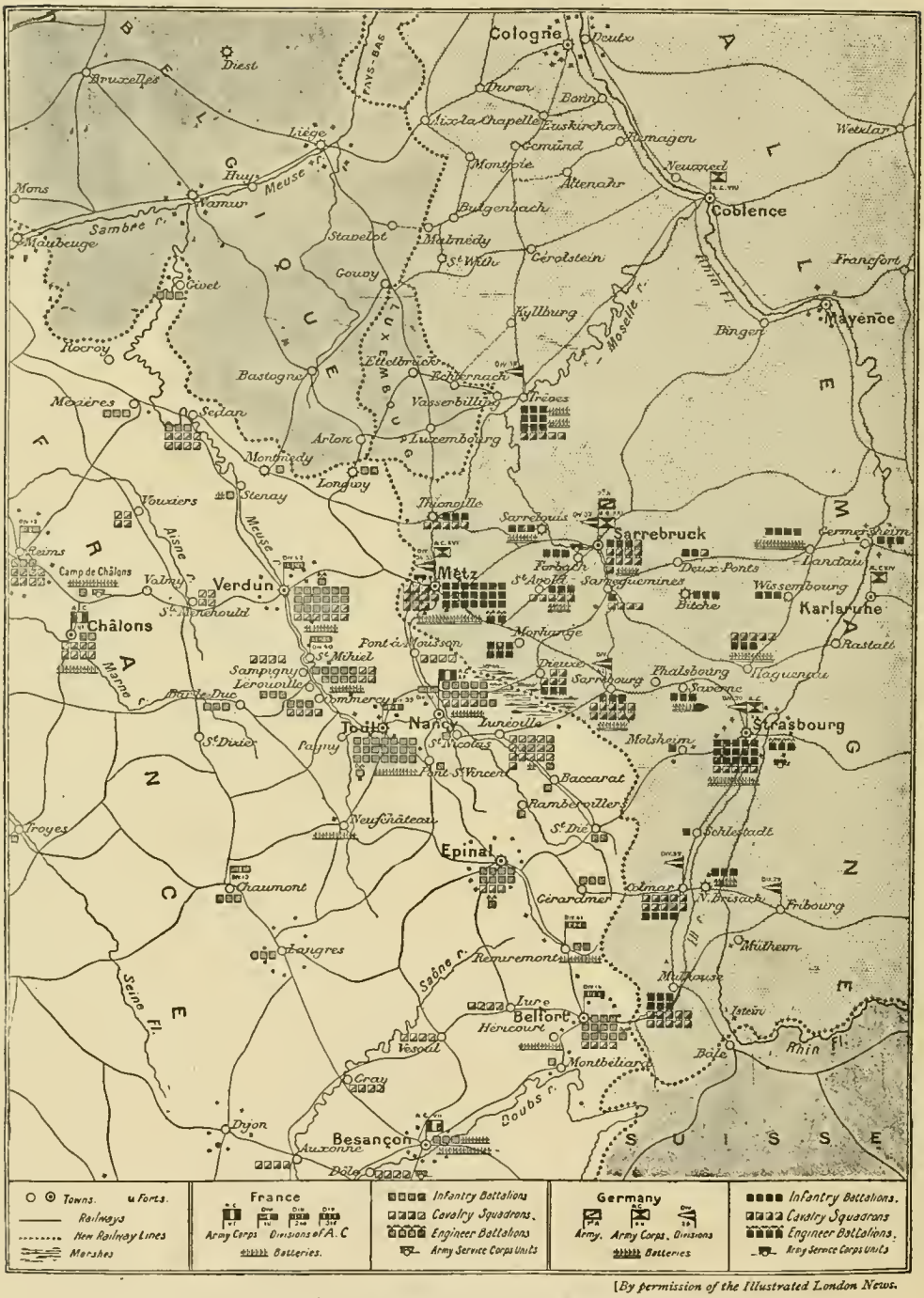
THE FRENCH AND GERMAN FRONTIER FORCES.



[By permission of the Illustrated London News.

This map shows the disposition and strength of the forces which in normal times guard the Franco-German frontier.

INTRODUCTION

THE Roman historian, Livy, begins his account of the Second Punic War with this declaration: "I am about to describe the greatest of all the wars that ever were waged." Doubtless he told the truth as it was in his time; but if he could revise his book to-day he would open it with a different sentence. The solemn duty of narrating the greatest of all wars that ever were waged now devolves upon our journalists, and a few years hence it will tax the powers of the ablest historian that the world can produce.

Whatever may be the prejudices, the opinions, or the original nationality of an American, he cannot seriously consider this tremendous, complicated conflict without feeling that he is a citizen of the world, profoundly affected by European wars and sincerely desirous of world-wide peace.

This book is intended to enable the reader to scan the daily bulletins with something of an intelligent understanding of the despatches. No one, as yet, can tell him how it will all end; but we endeavor here to tell him why it began; to indicate, as nearly as possible, the various ends that are striven for; and to show him the resources and implements that come into play—many of them for the first time. There is no intention here of according praise or blame to any of the combatants, or expressing any opinion as to the merits of the conflict or the truth or falsehood of those that wage it. We hope we have presented, simply and clearly, as many of the pertinent facts as our space allows —only adding that when Byron expressed his enthusiasm for "Livy's pictured page" neither he nor that brilliant historian ever had seen such pictured pages as these.

R. J.

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CHRONOLOGICAL LIST OF EVENTS

SARAJEVO

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THE CLASH OF NATIONS

CHAPTER I

THE IMMEDIATE CAUSES OF THE WAR

On June 27, 1914, Francis Ferdinand, nephew of the emperor and heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, drove, with his wife, through Sarajevo, capital of the Province of Bosnia, which had been wrested from Servia by Austria. Suddenly a half-crazed Servian student forced his way through the protecting line of soldiers and fired a pistol with deadly aim at the royal carriage. The shots not only slew Francis Ferdinand and his consort, but gave the immediate provocation—or, at least, the pretext—for a still more hideous slaughter; it set in motion a war that has wrecked the peace of Europe and embroiled the Powers in the most appalling conflict the modern world has known.

This murder was not in itself sufficient to cause a world-catastrophe. No one at the time could imagine its all-embracing consequences. Yet succeeding events have cast an illuminating light on the dark places of political affairs, and revealed to us a Europe mined with the animosities of contending races, and primed for the chance spark that should cause an explosion.

Dispassionate students of world-politics, though cautious in framing an indictment against the Powers that precipitated the conflict, seem agreed that its causes are rooted in Austria's resolve to weld the different factions of her empire at whatever result to the Slav, though she was well aware that in so doing she braved the inevitable opposition of Russia and all the martial hordes of the Balkan States. Austria's critics call her the oppressor and bully of Servia. They point to the many things she has done to impair the national integrity of the little kingdom—to make it, in fact, her vassal, in order that the

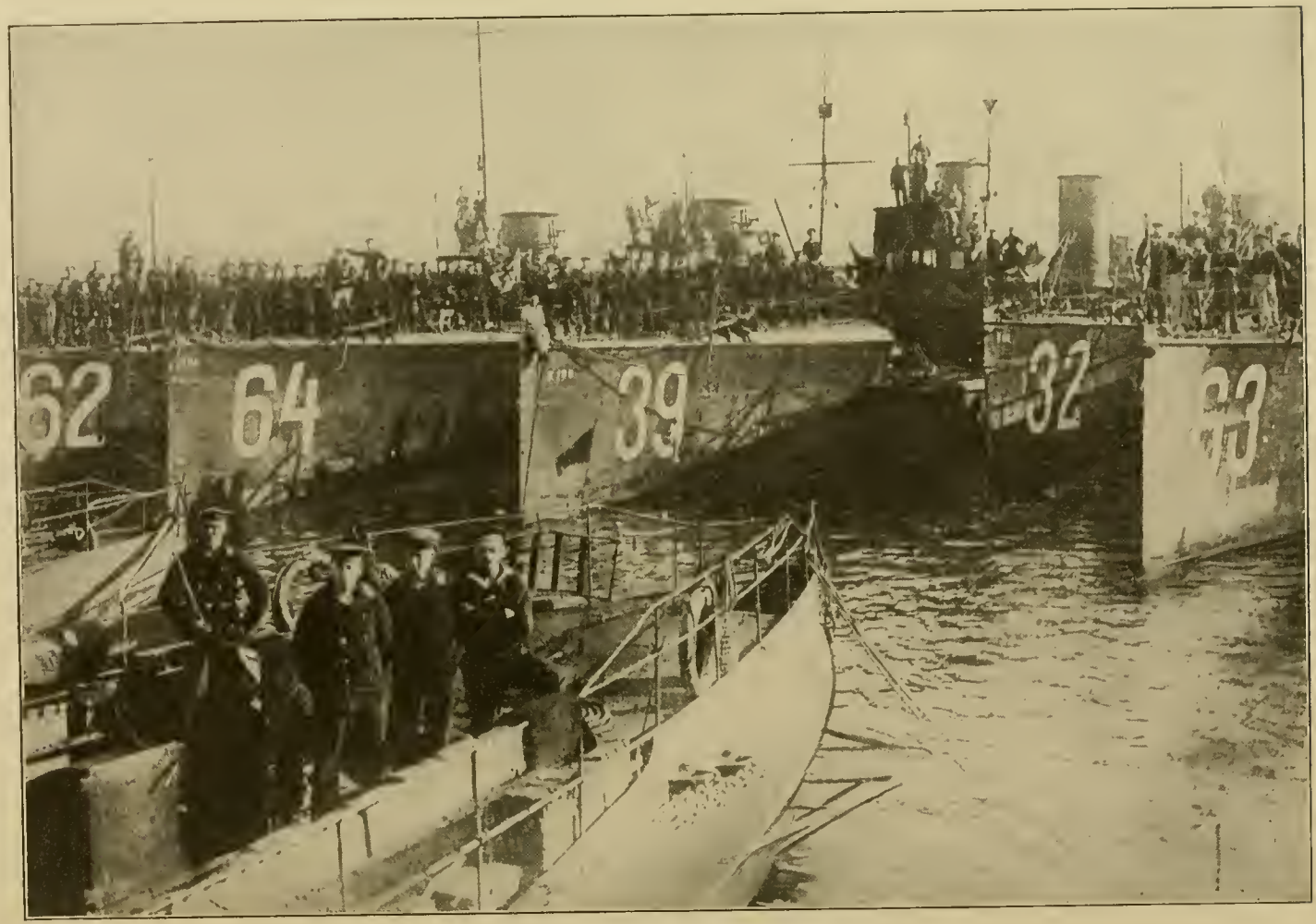
AN ANTE-BELLUM PICTURE

The Kaiser Showing His Army to Winston Churchill, First Lord of the British Admiralty

door may be open to her own expansion. In this never-wavering purpose of Austria to extend her domain along the Adriatic, in 1908 she tore up the Treaty of Berlin (made in 1878), seized the Servian provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, sought Russia's sanction for the occupation of Salonica, and, failing in this, would now take from Servia the sanjak of Novi Bazar, and so set at naught the alliance of Servia with Montenegro.

But that is not all. Having, through her seizure of Bosnia and Herzegovina, so bottled up Servia that the Serbs must seek a market for their products in Hungary, Austria, from time to time, has enforced quarantine regulations that make it impossible for the Servian farmer to live. This alone has driven the peasant to desperation. Inhabiting a rugged country, only one fourth of which can be cultivated, he is forced to raise pork that his Jewish and Mohammedan neighbors to the south cannot eat, and that he cannot send across the Danube at a profit. His very existence depends upon getting an outlet to the sea. For such an outlet he freely shed his blood in the two recent wars with the Turk, only to find that Austria had once more blocked his way by setting up the spurious principality of Albania.

So say the critics of Austrian ambitions and Austrian politics as played by the Hapsburgs. This arraignment (just recited above) of Austria-Hungary is founded partly on an assumption of sinister motives, partly on the facts of recorded history, and partly on a hostile interpretation of recent events. The more recent happenings are concerned with charges of political conspiracy to which Austria ascribes not only the actual murder of her heir apparent, but other crimes as well. The Servians, so Austro-Hungarians would ask the world to believe, are the scum of the earth—mentally and morally degraded. It is only under Austrian rule that they take on the ways of civilization—improving their farms, building up industries, and emerging from a shamefully illiterate condition. Lacking this benevolent supervision, they easily degenerate into assassins and poisoners. The very Government, we are told, has been in league with its citizens to plot against the peace of the troubled Austrian Empire, and to sow sedition among its vast population of Servians. These charges are hotly resented by the Serbs.



LYING IN WAIT FOR THE BRITISH

Flotilla of German Torpedo Boats at Wilhelmshaven

Whatever facts concerning the murder of the heir apparent may ultimately be disclosed, Austria-Hungary's efforts to fasten the crime upon Servia had met with no success when, late in July, the Emperor Francis Joseph was persuaded to enforce the policy of coercion that was implied in his country's sweeping demands. Servia was disposed to comply with these demands, excepting that which provided for an inquiry by Austrian officials in Servia itself. To abase herself in that particular involved the virtual abdication of her sovereignty. Servia asked that the matter be referred to The Hague, as fully provided for in the treaty signed by Austria-Hungary in common with the other great European Powers in 1899.

"The contracting powers," says this treaty, to which the peace advocates of the world had pinned their faith, "agree to use their best efforts to insure the pacific settlement of international differences. In case of serious disagreement or conflict, before an appeal to arms, the contracting powers agree to have recourse, so far as circumstances allow, to the good offices or mediation of one or more friendly powers."

But Austria-Hungary, it appears, was in no temper for mediation. It is generally believed, moreover, that she counted upon Servia's refusal, and was prepared to make good her own ultimatum. It is also assumed that in this she counted upon the coöperation of Germany, her chief partner in the Triple Alliance. Be this as it may, the German Emperor did not hold back. In vain did Great Britain appeal to him with offers of conciliation. The shadow of the Russian Bear obscured the sun; the fighting millions of the czar were in process of mobilization. Austria-Hungary declared war on Servia, and a horrified and bewildered western world saw chaos come again.

The immediate causes contributing to the war are so overlapped with causes more remote that it is difficult to separate and distinguish them. The political tension of Europe within the past few years is in most respects a sequence of conditions that have long obtained—some of them for many hundreds of years. What has happened in the Balkans is the climax of an old story. German aggression is the legitimate, though to some persons the unexpected, expression of a State that for many years has resembled an armed camp. The immediate relation of Austria-Hungary to the present crisis merges in the

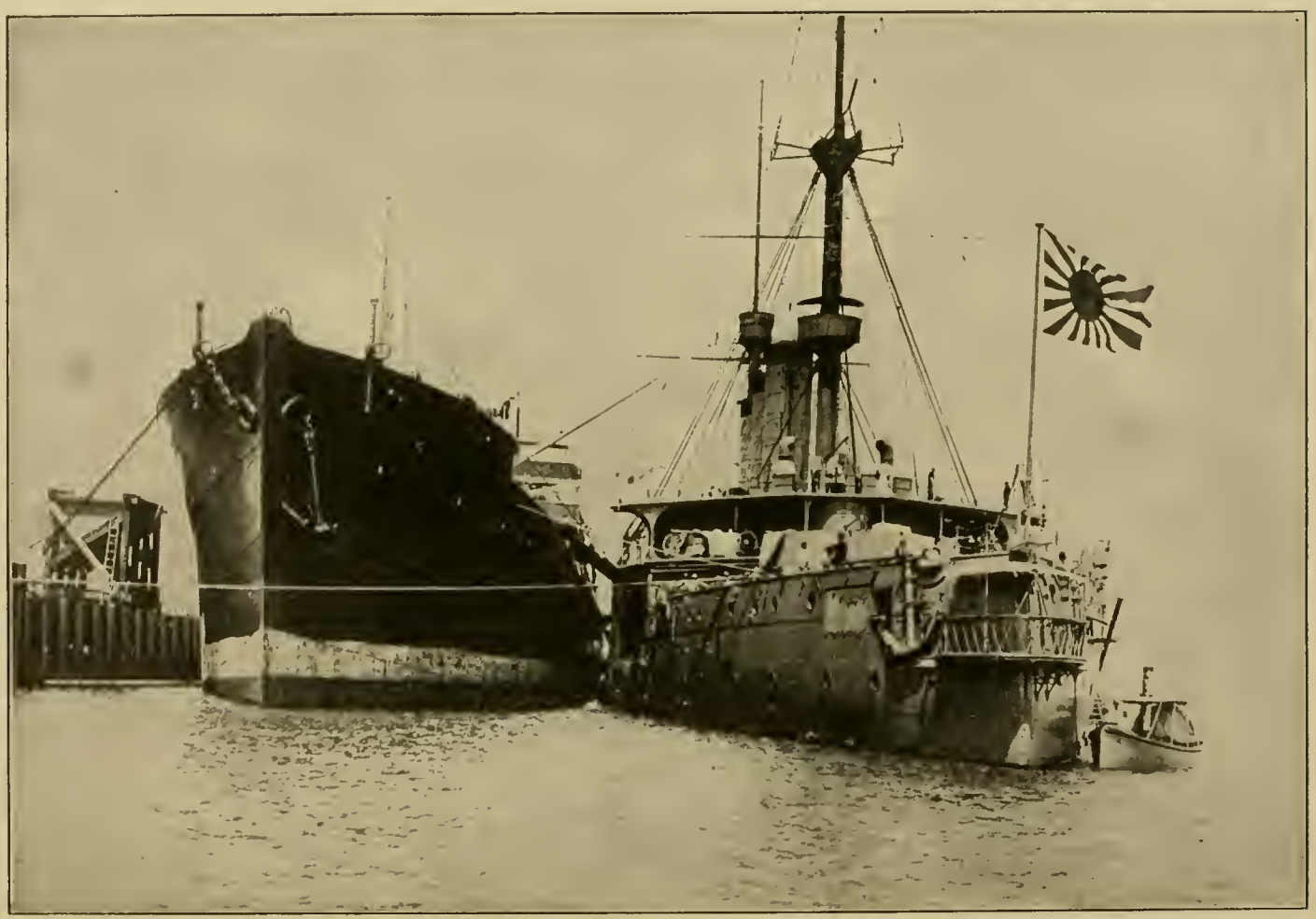
BELGIUM'S HEROIC SOLDIER-KING

Albert I Has Added to the Already Great Popularity He Enjoyed by His Magnificent Conduct During the War

period that began with 1878. Russia's designs are all but as old as the sea that she seeks, and the Slavs by any other name than Servia would as readily enlist her aid. France has been forced to fight, and so has Great Britain.

What has really happened is a new alignment of the nations. For the first time in history, the Latins are a secondary consideration. Uppermost in this stupendous conflict loom two great antagonists—the Teuton and the Slav. The Germans of Austria-Hungary, with those of the German Empire, have pitted their strength against Russia and the millions that are allied to her by race. Great Britain and France back the Slav, and the western world looks on.

The Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente.—In political terms, Triple Alliance is arrayed against Triple Entente. International Alliances, or agreements between nations of independent rank, for the purpose of offense or defense, have been formed in Europe, from time to time, in order to maintain what is called "the balance of power." France, for example, without the political partnership of Russia, or her understanding with Great Britain, would be soon reduced to subjection by Germany, and Germany, in turn, needs Austria-Hungary's support. In Europe the political scene is constantly shifting with the development of the various nations, and the national friend of to-day may be the national enemy of to-morrow. In the Triple Alliance of 1688, Britain, Sweden, and the Netherlands were arrayed against France, while in 1717 France found herself allied with England and Holland against Spain, and afterward Austria united with them, making a quadruple alliance. In 1788 England, Prussia, and Holland formed an alliance, which was in effect four years. As late as 1854, England and France—to-day the allies of Russia—combined with Turkey and Sardinia against the czar. In 1872 Russia, Austria, and Germany formed an alliance that was popularly known as "the league of the three emperors." In 1879 Germany and Austria were allied, and Italy joined them in 1882. This was called the Dreibund (German for Triple Alliance). In 1902 England began forming similar connections (called ententes, signifying "understanding"), first with France, then with Russia—now constituting the Triple Entente; and in 1901 England formed an alliance with Japan, which was renewed in 1911. Some of these alliances



AN ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE

Japanese Cruiser Coaling from an English Collier

are defensive only. Thus, in the present war, Italy, a member of the Triple Alliance, declines to join with Germany and Austria, on the ground that they are the aggressors, whereas she allied herself with them for defense only. At this moment we see Japan, Russia's recent conqueror, ready to aid King George, and incidentally the czar, in keeping Asia's coast in order by joining hands against the Germans. This alliance between Japan and Great Britain was formed in 1902, in the face of adverse criticism by many Americans, and still closer relations were established in 1905; but it is Germany, and not our own nation, that will suffer through the compact.

It will be observed that Bismarck—Germany's chancellor of "blood and iron"—has had no successor. When the German ship of state dropped its pilot—as the London "Punch" once phrased it in the legend under a famous cartoon—the Kaiser took the helm. There are those who hold that, were Bismarck alive and in power to-day, German diplomacy, if it did not avert the war, would at least not have blundered in alienating Italy as a party to the Triple Alliance and inviting the vengeance of Great Britain by invading Belgium in defiance of The Hague Conference rules.

It is interesting to recall that Bismarck, up to the time of his abdication, did not relinquish the idea of renewing friendship with Russia. For Russia was bound with Austria-Hungary and Germany in the informal pact of 1872 known as the Dreibund, and if Russia eventually withdrew from it, it was because her war against Turkey, five years later, did not accord with Austrian aims. With Russia an uncertain factor, Austria and Germany formed a defensive alliance in 1879, though it was not made public till 1887, and in 1882 Italy forswore the friendship of France, owing to the French occupation of Tunis, and became the third member of what is now known as the Triple Alliance.

Italy's participation seems to be that of a silent partner, and a displeased one at that. Since 1898 she has renewed her lost friendship for France, and she took occasion to show it when Germany threatened trouble in Morocco. In view of Austria's cruel oppression of Italy, ere the yoke was cast off by Cavour, Italy's alliance with the despotic Hapsburgs seems inexplicable. The news from Italy at the outbreak of the war showed that, whatever might be the views of the

LIEUTENANT H. R. H. THE PRINCE OF WALES

The Heir to the British Crown Is a Subaltern in the Grenadier Guards. The Photograph Shows Him with His Company on a Route March. The Lack of Restraint on the Part of the Soldiers in the Presence of Their Royal Lieutenant Illustrates the Fraternal Spirit Existing Between Officers and Men of the British Army

Government, the Italian people were strongly opposed, not only to joining in a war against France, but to the strengthening of Austria's grip on the Balkans and the furtherance of her designs on the Adriatic coast.

Meanwhile, Italy has been on excellent terms with Great Britain ever since the alliance between Russia and France was effected in the period of 1887-'95. Strangely enough, this was brought about because France and Russia took alarm at overtures made to Great Britain by central Europe. The French fleet paid a visit to Cronstadt, the Russian fleet saluted the Republic at Toulon. The old cry of "perfidious Albion" was raised, and Russian loans were subscribed in Paris. Yet Russia and France, by formal compact, and Great Britain, with acknowledgments less binding, form the Triple Entente that is now in a death-grip with the two Germanic Powers of the Triple Alliance.

Two Expert Pleas.—A brilliant representative of the Serbs is their honorary consul-general, Professor Michael I. Pupin, of Columbia University. Professor Pupin, who is a Serb of Austrian birth, holds that Austria's ultimatum to Servia is the most arrogant document ever flung in the face of a weaker nation by a powerful one. "It is true," he declared in a recent interview, "that there is a Pan-Serb propaganda in Austria; but this propaganda is among the Serbs and Croats in Austria, and not among the Serbs in Servia or Montenegro. These Austrian Serbs—and I am one of them—need no encouragement from Servia to carry on their national movement. Austrian violation of every principle of justice and fairness, Austrian tyranny, which cannot find its parallel in the darkest period of the Middle Ages, is responsible for this Pan-Serb movement in Austria.

"In 1690 thirty-five thousand picked Serb families left Old Servia at the express invitation of Emperor Leopold I of Austria and settled along the southern Austrian frontier, which was then being devastated by the Turks. And now a refusal of the Austrian Empire to deal fairly with her Serb subjects is particularly hard in face of the fact that for two centuries they were the bravest and most loyal defenders of the empire.

"In return for their splendid services to the empire, the Serbs

BERLIN CELEBRATING A TRIUMPH
Procession of Captured French Guns Passing Through the Brandenburg Gate

of Austria became victims of the modern Austrian policy of expansion toward the Ægean Sea. The Serb is imaginative, fond of his national music and poetry and of his national costumes, and nothing in the world can prevent him from indulging in the sweet dreams of the Serb minstrel who sang of the return of the Serb glories of the fourteenth century. This is the only offense of which the Austrian Serb is guilty, and this offense constitutes high treason in the Austrian Empire.

"The annexation by Austria of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the home of the flower of the Serb race, in 1908, drove the people to desperation and resulted in the Sarajevo tragedy, for which Austria blames the Kingdom of Servia. The Servian youth who fired the shot is a member of the Pan-Serb propaganda in Austria, but every Serb in Austria is a member of this propaganda. I am a member of it, although I have lived in this country since my boyhood."

To the testimony of Professor Pupin (quoted above) we add the illuminating comments of Professor Alfred L. Kroeber, the eminent anthropologist of the University of California:

"The present European situation reveals several outstanding features which may seem paradoxically improbable, but which would yet be indorsed as facts by students of ethnology. Contrary to all appearances, the responsibility for the war is not to be laid to the German Emperor or any individual. In the present state of civilization no more blame attaches to one nation than to any other. Race differences and race conflicts are emphatically not at the bottom of the eruption; and certain far-reaching results can even now be set down as inevitable.

"The characteristic rapid-fire and decisive ultimatums of the Kaiser have spread the impression throughout the impartial portion of the civilized world that it is his personality that has precipitated an otherwise preventable crisis. Americans in particular, to whom constitutional imperialism is almost unthinkable, and therefore greatly exaggerated, appear to feel keen sympathy for the unfortunate predicament of so sterling a people as the Germans, and corresponding resentment toward their war lord.

"Whatever blame there is attaches to the German nation, and not to the Kaiser. For nearly fifty years Germans as a mass have

THE NEW BALACLAVA

The Ninth British Lancers, Led by Captain F. O. Grenfell, Who Is to Be Seen in the Picture with Sword Extended, Charged a German Battery of Seven Guns in Action on the Belgian Frontier and Were Almost Annihilated

made their own the blood-and-iron doctrine of Bismarck. In spite of organized socialist propaganda and much liberal theoretical opposition, the German people have believed that their only hope as a nation lay in reliance on their sharp sword and strong arm. They have grumbled, but they have willingly supported armaments, conscription, and an aggressive foreign policy.

"To charge the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 to the short-sighted ambition of Napoleon III or to give credit for it to the genius of Bismarck is a favorite device of apologists for France and admirers of the great statesman, but it is far from profound. At the bottom of that brief but decisive conflict lay the rehabilitation of France from the Napoleonic catastrophe of 1815, the growth of Prussian efficiency, the slow solidification of the German national sense. Bismarck only seized, as Napoleon bungled, an opportunity presented in the development of ethnic relations. Like poor Louis Napoleon, William I bids fair to be the world's scapegoat for a sweep of events utterly beyond his control.

"Let Americans not imagine that public sentiment is less powerful and the popular will less fundamentally dominant, even though less directly expressed, in Germany than in the United States. It is Germany, and not the Kaiser, that for fifty years—in a sense for a hundred and fifty years—has by the mere fact of her growth and strengthening been bringing on the struggle of to-day; and it is Germany, the German people and nation, that for better or for worse will have to bear the responsibility.

"On one side Germany is currently represented as fired by lust of conquest and a boundless ambition utterly disregardful of obligations or the rights of others; and the sentiment of most of the civilized world seems to sustain the verdict. On the other hand, Germans exalt the conduct of their country as influenced only by motives of self-preservation against the Russian desire for brutal world-dominion, British cold-blooded calculation of profit, and the long-nurtured, revengeful hatred of France.

"Neither side is at fault. Germany has for years been hated by Russia, feared by France, hated and feared by England, as a menace is always hated and feared. No one, individual or nation, can love a winning or even a gaining rival. Germany has been well aware

THE CZAR DISPLAYING AN IKON

The Czar Is the Spiritual as Well as the Temporal Head of the Russian People. He Is Here Shown Exposing to His Troops One of the Sacred Images Which Were Similarly Displayed Before the War with Japan

of these national sentiments, and, conscious of her own strength, has not sought the vain task of dissipating them, but has fortified herself against them. In their own power, the German people have believed, lay their salvation, and not in false friendships with distanced competitors. Assured in their minds of the unavoidable ill will of their neighbors, they have come to disregard totally the opinion of these neighbors. Self-satisfaction to the point of arrogance and self-confidence amounting almost to insult have been the natural result.

"When Athens was at the very summit of her unparalleled civilization, when she was producing Sophocles and Phidias and Socrates, the attitude of the Greek world toward her was absolutely like that of Europe toward Germany to-day. She was arrogant, she was overweening, she was an intolerable menace to the peace and to the existence of every other Greek state. The Peloponnesian war was brought on by a direct and carefully considered act of interference by Athens in a quarrel between two cities with which she had no concern. Corcyra and Corinth parallel Austria and Servia exactly. When Sparta called the council of the allies there was no dissentient voice to the cry for the need of once-and-for-all curbing the overbearing progress of the Athenians. Athens' own allies were reluctant and forced, or actuated only by calculated self-interest. Before the war was done they had either rebelled against her or left her coldly in the lurch.

"The war of to-day is continental and million-wide; the Greek wars were between cities of thousands in one small peninsula. The scale has changed, but the actuating principles are identical. The cause of the war, then, lies in the unavoidable clash between nation and nation.

"Human race means two things. In the strict sense of the phrase, it means only the inherited bodily type and mental predisposition common to a group of people. A looser, popular extension makes race signify the vaguer traits shared by masses of men, that are larger than political boundaries. It is with this looser meaning that we speak of an Anglo-Saxon and a Slavic race. In the first or strict anthropological sense, there are only three races in Europe: the Northern, the Alpine, and the Mediterranean. What do we find about the

The Hope of a Restored Autonomous Poland May Become an Important Factor in the War. The Boundaries Indicated in the Map Represent the Probable New Poland, at Present Divided Between Russia, Austria, and Germany

From Nelson's "War Atlas."

Servia, Even with Its Recently Enlarged Boundaries, Represents Only a Part of the Kingdom Which Fell Before the Turkish Power in 1389. The Map Shows a Possible Readjustment of the Austro-Servian Frontier

relation of these races to the political alignments? Strange as it may seem, they have nothing to do with each other. Every one of the nations involved includes millions of representatives of at least two of the racial types. And members of the same race are enthusiastically fighting one another under different national flags.

"Even in the looser interpretation of race, as due to a common language, religion, and trend of institutions, it is impossible to make the national grouping agree with the race divisions. Catholic Austria and Protestant Germany are leagued against Catholic France, Protestant England, and Greek Orthodox Russia."

The German Zeppelin "Viktoria Luise"

THE GERMAN-SWISS BOUNDARY

Soldiers of Germany and Switzerland on Guard at a Frontier Station

CHAPTER II

THE ORIGINAL CAUSES—BOUNDARIES AND RACES

If we would study intelligently the original, and perhaps inevitable, causes of the great conflict that is devastating Europe, we must do it with a map of that continent before us.

As civilization advances and population increases, the geographical rule of nationality becomes more apparent and more insistent. That rule, briefly stated, is, that the tendency of mankind is to work toward union and centralization wherever these are indicated by natural boundaries. Where once were the seven little kingdoms, known as the Heptarchy, is now England; and the Scotland that held aloof for seven centuries after the union of those petty kingdoms is now an inseparable member of the United Kingdom. On the other hand, a wide sea gives Ireland the natural boundaries that promise the independence she has always wished for, and she has been held to the United Kingdom only by military power. She herself is a combination of four principalities. France also is the result of a union of several small kingdoms, and so is Spain. In each case the gravitation toward union was from the same cause, lack of any sufficient natural separation. But France and Spain never have come together, and probably never will, because of the high boundary-wall of the Pyrenees. Much later occurred the unification of Italy, and later still the consolidation of the German States. If we extend our inquiry into ancient times, we see—instead of the Kingdom of Greece—Attica, Sparta, Bœotia, Argolis, and Thessaly. If we turn to the map of our own continent, in modern times, we see a chain of great lakes and a wide river that form an emphatic natural boundary; and familiar history narrates that the colonies south of this boundary separated from the mother country across the sea and bound themselves together in a perpetual union, while the colonies on the north did not join in the Revolution, held aloof from the Union (though

The Franco-German Frontier

invited to enter it), and ultimately federated themselves in a strong Dominion—and all this though the same language is spoken on both sides of the boundary, the same race prevails, and many interests are identical. The failure of the determined attempt to divide the American Union by the war of 1861-'65 was largely due to the fact that it was a struggle against the natural law of geographical necessity. The artificial cause of the war—slavery—being abolished, there is no further desire for disunion.

Turning once more to Europe—the Kingdom of Poland went out of existence, the territory being divided among its powerful neigh-

Frontier Between Germany, Russia and Austria-Hungary

bors, because it had no natural boundaries; but the smaller country of Switzerland maintains itself to this day, because it is buttressed about by great mountains.

An interesting instance of the occasional imperfect application of the law is afforded by the Scandinavian peninsula. Sweden and Norway are separated by a range of mountains so moderate as to form a somewhat unsatisfactory boundary; and in consequence they are sometimes united and sometimes independent of each other, as natural advantages or political incompatibility may for the time dictate.

Boundaries of Central Europe in 1816

Two other elements make for union or separation, sometimes in harmony with the geographic law, and sometimes in conflict with it. These are race and religion. The assumption that a difference of race or tribe necessitates antagonism originated in primitive barbarism and has been only slowly outgrown in the progress of civilization. It was doubtless owing to this that when the Continent of North America was discovered the Indians that roamed over it were estimated at not more than three hundred thousand, as the tribes had been continuously at war with one another. A Cæsar or a Napoleon may go out with great armies and conquer extensive territories; but if in doing so they overleap natural boundaries and ignore

Boundaries of Central Europe in 1866

racial traits and traditions, all their conquests lapse back in a few years. William of Normandy crossed the Channel and conquered England; but his successors could not keep both England and Normandy; and the conquered Saxons and the conquering Normans soon merged into a new English nation.

Desire for alienation, or a clannish spirit, because of difference or identity of religious belief, no longer plays the part that it once played in the comity of nations. Yet many peoples are still slow to learn the obvious truth that religion is purely an affair between each individual soul and its Creator, and State-prescribed religion

THE RACIAL MAP OF EUROPE

Of the Areas Showing White, Switzerland Is a Mixture of French, Germans and Italians; Part of Hungary Is Magyar, a Race Allied to the Finns; Turkey Is Inhabited by a Race of Asiatic Origin, and the Albanians Are a Mixture of the Descendants of the Ancient Illyrians with Greeks and Slavs

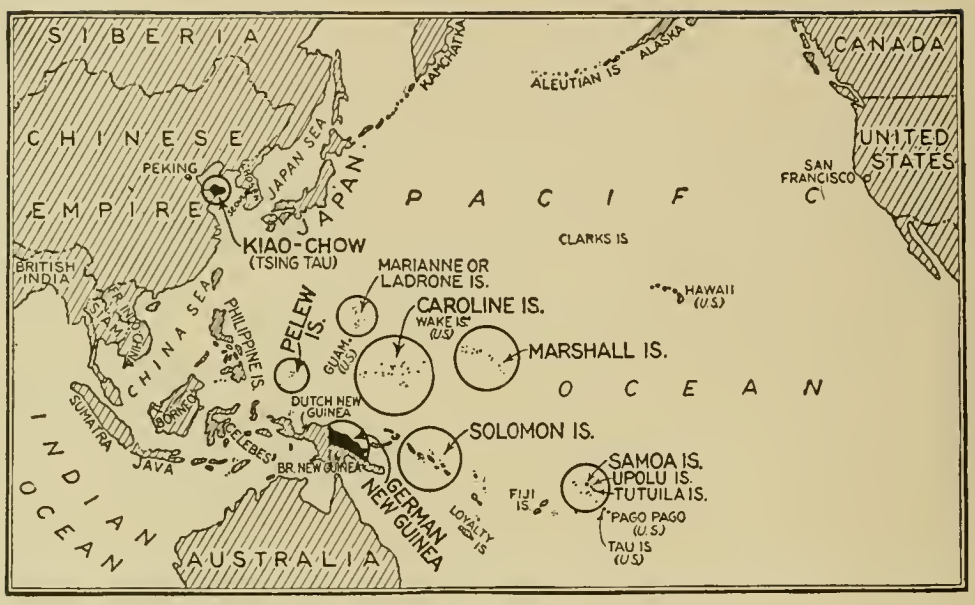
is not really religion at all—is merely ecclesiasticism. Hence the blending of religious lines with political lines.

Looking now at a map of Europe that is at once geographical and ethnological, we see how few are the natural boundaries, and how many the ethnical separations—the separations inciting to contest, and the lack of natural boundaries at once increasing this incitement and diminishing the means of self-defense. This smallest of the continents, situated in the North Temperate Zone (most favorable for trade), and having an extensive sea-front (most favorable to soil and climate) possesses every condition for steady increase of population; and as this approaches congestion there is temptation

The Racial Patchwork of the Austro-Hungarian Empire

to seize upon pretexts for encroaching upon neighboring territory. This condition of things is intensified by the forms of government and structure of society that maintain class distinctions and tend to suppress individual ambition. The steady stream of emigration that has been in fullest flow for several years hardly relieves the pressure; because wherever living is made easier, increase of population is accelerated. Where civilization, as we know it, is not far advanced, a mingling of races appears only to weaken the country that embraces them, because each race clings to its traditions and prejudices.

This is especially the case in southeastern Europe. Austria-Hungary includes in her population Bohemians, Moravians, Poles, Ruthenians, Croats, Serbs, Slovaks, Morlaks, Bulgarians, Italians, Armenians, Magyars, Germans, Rumanians, Jews, and Gipsies, and of all the great Powers Austria is notably the weakest, forever in danger of disruption. An American naturally contrasts this with our own country, where we have many races, but great strength—



The German Possessions in the Pacific

because we send their children, without distinction, to the same public schools, have the same opportunities open to every race and creed, and the same liberty and protection for all. The surprise of Americans when the Balkan States failed to confederate after they had virtually driven the Turk out of Europe—such a confederation seeming to us inevitable—would have been less if we had considered how those little States cling to their nice race distinctions and cherished traditions. And any criticism of their unwisdom must be tempered by remembrance of the difficulties that were encountered in bringing the thirteen American colonies together under a national constitution only a century and a quarter ago.

To the circumstances here set forth, which keep Europe in a state of unstable equilibrium and have led to numerous armed conflicts, must be added one other, greater than any of them, and sometimes seemingly greater than all. It has been known as "the Eastern question." Russia is an enormous empire in the center of a huge continent—for Europe and Asia are practically one continent—with no sufficient approach to the sea. She claims her share in the opportunities of world-commerce, and seeks a proper outlet to the highway of

nations. This the European Powers have long combined to deny her. The costly Crimean War of 1854-'55, when she was assailed by England, France, Sardinia, and Turkey, had no other motive. Half a century later, when, with admirable enterprise, she had built a railroad across the then dreary length of Siberia, and sought an outlet on the Pacific, the ocean of the future, up rose nimble Japan to play in the East the same part, from the same motive, that England and France had played in the West. After each repulse Russia slowly and patiently gathers her strength for another attempt. She is now double-tracking the Siberian railroad and improving it throughout; short branches extend on either side at frequent intervals, villages and farmsteads spring up all along the line, and the once forbidding territory is developing into a land of content. Russia never will cease her periodical attempts to secure a coastal outlet until one, at least, is accorded to her; and if her next trial is toward the Pacific, Japan is not likely to repeat the triumph of 1904.

The difficulty of judging this gigantic and complicated war, which involves nearly all Europe—a difficulty that is almost made an impossibility by the daily receipt of contradictory reports—may be relieved somewhat, if not fully, by remembering a principle taught us by nearly all modern wars—namely, that all modern wars end in the defeat of the combatant in whose territory they are waged.

MOBILIZATION IN GERMANY

German Reservists Leaving Berlin to Join Their Regiments

CHAPTER III

MOBILIZATION

MANY readers are asking, "What is the meaning of the word 'mobilization,' which has occurred so often in the despatches and editorials concerning the war?" The answer "Look in the dictionary" is not satisfactory to all, and indeed the term deserves a more extended explanation than can be found in any dictionary.

To begin with a simple illustration, many of us, as individuals, are mobilized every morning. The brief definition of the word is, to put into complete condition for moving, or for being moved. When we say of an actor that "he has a mobile face," we are using the root of the same word; we mean that the muscles of his face are so completely under his control that he can move them quickly from one aspect or expression to another.

When a man rolls out of bed at the proper hour in the morning, he must be mobilized. First, he wants a bath; then he puts on his garments, or some of them; then he shaves, unless he wears a full beard; then he has his breakfast, and looks at the morning paper; then he consults his wife as to the domestic program for the day; then, if it is stormy, he gets his overcoat, his overshoes, his umbrella; then he fills his cigar-case; then he makes sure that he has a few nickels in his pocket for car-fares; then he kisses his wife and children good-by for the day. Now that man is completely mobilized—that is to say, he is prepared to move from his home to his place of business.

The mobilization of an army is essentially the same thing, on a vastly greater scale; it is getting the army together, in perfect order, with all necessary outfits, so that it is prepared to move as a unit against the enemy, or, in a good position, withstand the assaults of its opponent.

Even with the best prepared people, the mobilization of a large army requires an appreciable amount of time. Let us suppose that

Canadian Soldier Kissing His Little Girl Good-bye

every man of military age in the realm has been drilled and disciplined in the school of the soldier. This is the case in most of the countries of continental Europe. They are not all with the colors at the same time. A part have served there the required period, and returned to their homes, to be on call if wanted. When an emergency arises, and a large army is needed for active operations in the field, they are called out—many of them from distant points. Some are cultivating their farms, some are in workshops, some in trade, some in universities, some are traveling abroad. If they have been drilled and apportioned properly, every man knows his place.

But calling the men together is only one item in the gigantic task. Some wise commander said long ago that "an army moves on its belly," which means that it can hardly move at all unless it is regularly and sufficiently fed. The great success of General Grant in the American Civil War was partly owing to the fact that he always saw to it that his army was properly fed. To feed a great

Called to the Colors—German Reservists Going to Their Stations

army, it is necessary not only to obtain the food (not all of which can be stored up beforehand), but to get it where it is wanted and have it in the hands of competent, trained men, who know how to distribute it day by day, so that no soldier shall go hungry. This requires not only a special organization but great trains of wagons, with their horses or mules and their drivers. Animals eat, as well as men, and forage has to be provided for both the cavalry horses and the draft animals—those that draw the wagons and those that draw the guns. The amount of lead and iron that is fired away in every battle is

"IT'S A LONG WAY TO TIPPERARY"

Everywhere, on the March, in Camp and on the Field of Battle, English Troops Are Singing This Now Famous Song. It Has Even Been Caught up by Their French Allies, Who Have Rendered the First Line, "Il y a bien loin d'ici a Tipperary." Here Is the Refrain of Britain's New Battle Song:

It's a long way to Tipperary,
It's a long way to go,
It's a long way to Tipperary
To the sweetest girl I know.

Good-by, Piccadilly!
Farewell, Leicester Square!
It's a long, long way to Tipperary,
But my heart's right there.

enormous. It has been estimated that this is nearly equal to a man's weight for every man that is killed. To keep an army supplied with ammunition requires another very large train. And these trains must be sufficiently guarded every day and hour; for an enemy is always looking for an opportunity to capture them or blow them up or burn them, which is quite as bad for the army as a defeat at the

The "Queen's Own" Leaving Toronto for England

front. To a certain extent an invading army can forage on the country; but this seldom lasts long, and supplies must be brought from home.

In every army, however successful, large numbers of men are wounded in battle or fall ill by the wayside. Hence the medical corps, which must be as carefully organized and fully supplied as any other. One of the peculiar cruelties of war consists in shutting out from a blockaded country or an invested city the drugs and medicines that are necessary for the sick and the wounded. With the

MOBILIZATION IN RUSSIA
Reservists Accompanied by Weeping Relatives

medical corps go the Red Cross and other nurses, for duty in the field or in hospitals.

Usually there is need of a signal corps to accompany the army, and this must be organized and equipped. It is common, in modern times, for the wings of an army and the headquarters to be in constant communication by telegraph; and this requires field instruments and a staff of expert operators.

At the same time, the commander-in-chief and his staff must determine which troops to call together and which to leave where they

The French Order of Mobilization

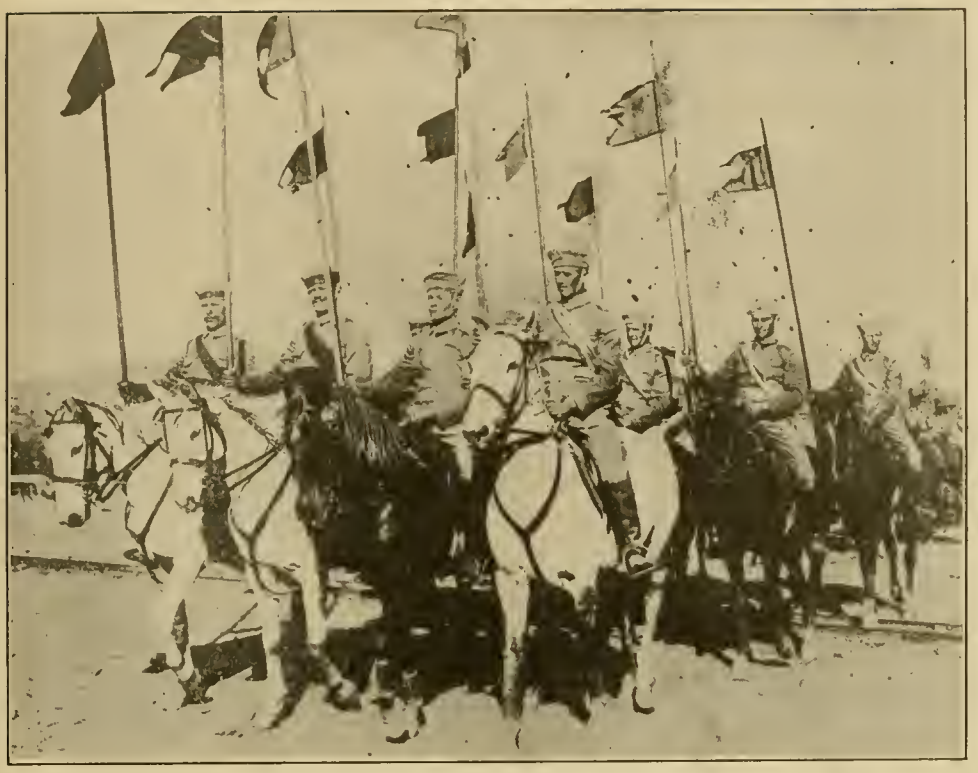
are; for it will often happen that some strategic points of great importance are already guarded, and their defenders must not be removed. Or, again, seasoned soldiers may be withdrawn from a fortified position and less experienced ones sent to take their place; and the army is made up of definite proportions of infantry, cavalry, and artillery—varying somewhat according to the country in which it is to operate.

When all this complicated problem has been solved, and the resulting tasks accomplished, that army is completely mobilized—it is ready to move as a unit.

The problem of mobilization presents some variations in each country. Probably Germany's facilities for it are somewhat superior to any other. Her people do not speak various languages, as do those of Austria. Her territory is not so large as that of Russia, and is better provided with railways. She has a central position, which gives

PARTICLES IN KITCHENER'S THUNDERBOLT

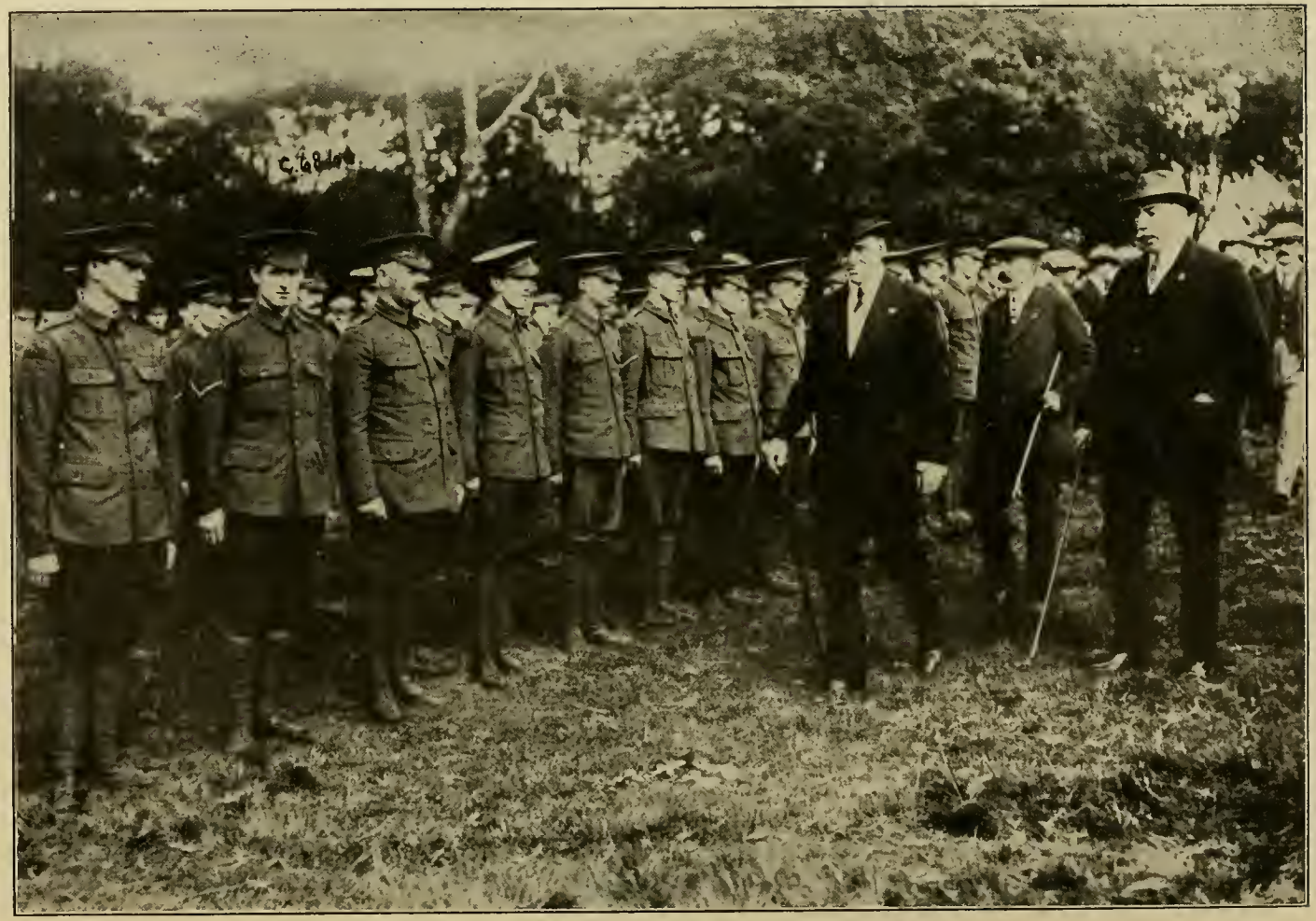
The British War Minister Is Forming a New English Army of a Million Men. This Picture of Cavalry Recruits Drilling, Shows That Men of a High Type Answered the Call for Volunteers



A Detachment of Uhlans in South Africa

her the interior lines as compared with any neighbor—always an advantage either in tactics or in grand strategy. She has adopted powerful automobile trucks for moving her heavy guns, instead of draft animals, which is a great improvement as well as a great expense. And finally, if there is any difference in the approach to perfection in the drilling and discipline of the men, the advantage lies with Germany.

France has not so many men of military age as Germany has, and she has not drilled them so strenuously; and there is a difference between the men themselves. The German is usually very much in earnest about everything he undertakes. He is always serious, and usually stubborn. The Frenchman is of lighter build intellectually, has more sense of humor, is inclined to think of other things besides the one immediately in hand. Consequently, he is seldom so terribly in earnest as the German. With his songs and his witty sayings he



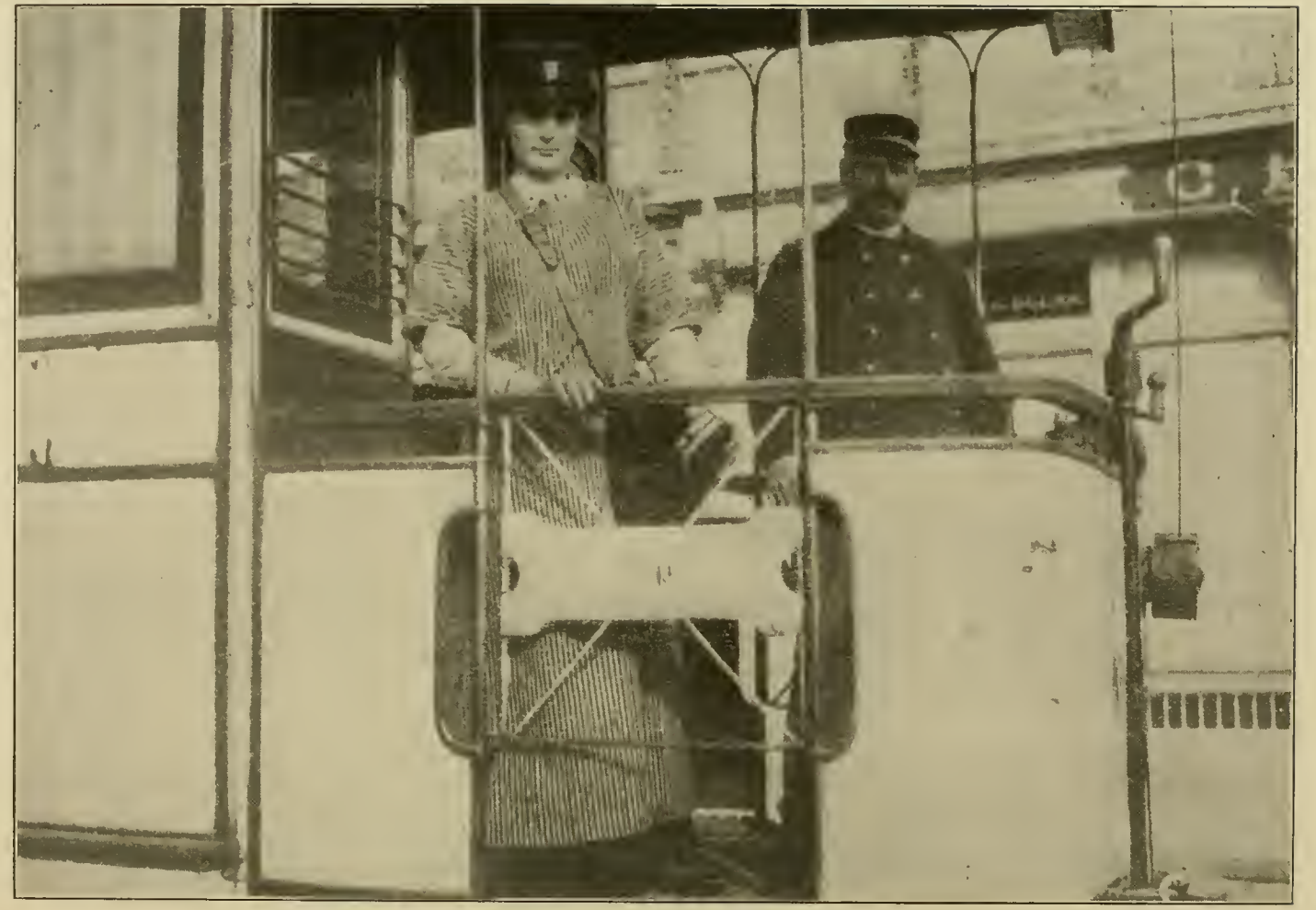
ONCE ULSTER VOLUNTEERS, NOW ROYAL IRISH RIFLES

Sir Edward Carson Inspecting the North Belfast Regiment of the Ulster Volunteers, Who Have Forgotten All About Irish Politics and Gone to the Front

French Reservists Reporting at the Military Bureau

sometimes gives a fringe of lightness to the sober realities of war. Yet France does not always forget the lessons of experience, and the French are keen at invention. It is said, on good authority, that the field artillery of the French is markedly superior to that of the Germans. As France is a republic, her Government cannot be expected to have quite so free a hand in preparing for possible war, or even in promptly meeting the necessities of actual war, as a strong monarchy. A ministry may fall, or a president lose his office, in consequence of an error that is not fatal; but a dynasty is not easily changed or abolished. Hence the rigor of the service, and the consequent rapidity of mobilization never can be the same in a republic as in an empire.

Mobilization in Russia has the advantage of a completely autocratic government, together with some disadvantages, the chief of which are the greater extent of territory over which the troops are spread in time of peace, and the lower scale of intelligence of the private soldiers. These are usually heavy physically and apparently somewhat stolid mentally. But they obey orders without hesitation,



TAKING HER HUSBAND'S PLACE

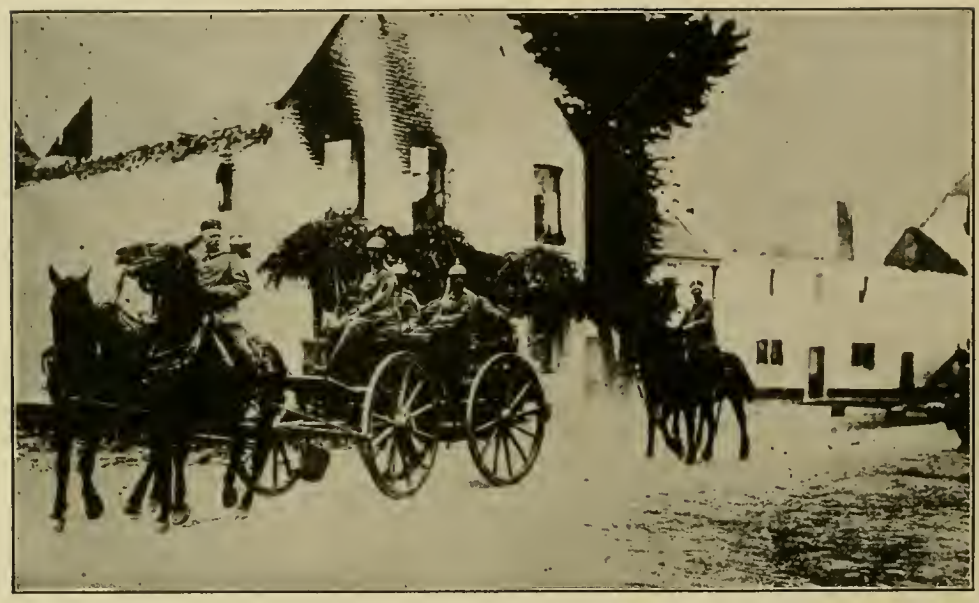
Women Are Doing the Work of France While the Men Are Fighting. This Picture Shows a Woman Car Conductor in Le Havre. Her Husband Went to the Front and She Took His Place

and when skilfully handled bear down on an enemy like a cyclone. It was said by observers of the recent war between Russia and Japan that the Russian service, as to its officers, was honeycombed with disloyalty. But so far as we can judge there has been no appearance of that in the present contest. Russia is a great country in men and material resources—a slow mover—but when her vast armies are

French Girls Cheering Soldiers Leaving Paris for the Front

in the field, she is a dread power to be reekoned with. Within her own borders she produces everything needed for an army.

England, planted behind her "watery wall," and with a navy that makes her mistress of the seas, has felt safe in maintaining a comparatively small standing army of volunteers, with no compulsory service. When a war breaks out in which she is involved, she has no trouble in getting volunteers, and from their general intelligence and knowledge of the world—consequent upon her world-wide empire—they can be converted into effective soldiers much quicker than most others. Nevertheless, her mobilization must necessarily be slow in comparison, because she must first make many of the soldiers from raw material before she can mobilize. One of the wonders of



German Reservists Leaving Their Village

the present war is the fact that British troops serving in India are on their way to Europe, first crossing the Pacific and then passing through Canada, to take Atlantic shipping at Montreal.

Belgium, a small country, the most densely populated in Europe, would naturally find it comparatively easy to mobilize her forces for service on her own soil; and this was proved by the celerity with which she brought them together and presented a strong embattled front to the invading Germans.

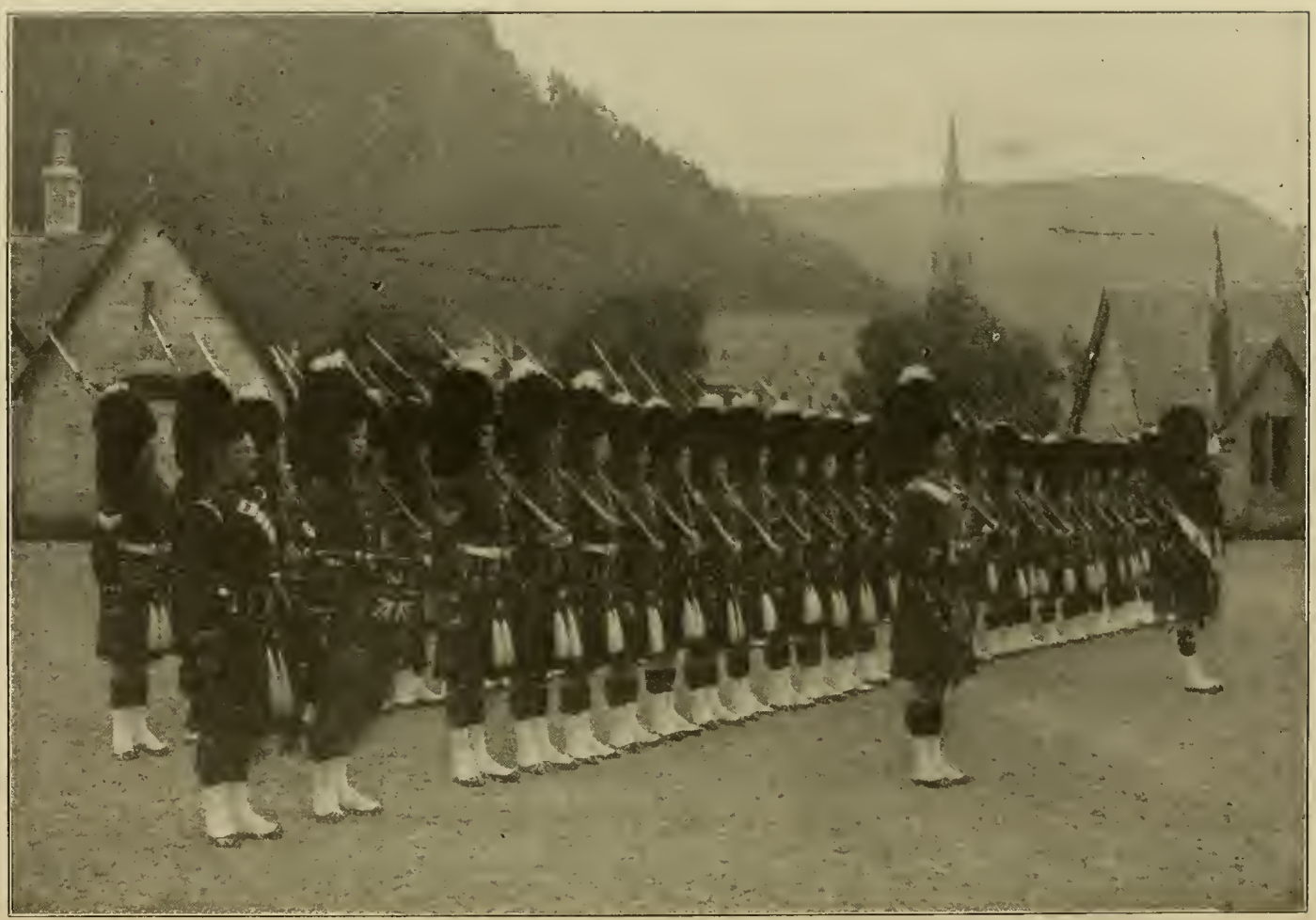
When a government announces that it maintains an attitude of neutrality, but will mobilize its forces, it is to be understood that no complete mobilization is to be expected, but only one that could be completed quickly in an emergency.

In England the problem of the immediate mobilization of the regular army is comparatively simple. England's army is composed of professional soldiers, not a few of whom have served almost the full term of twenty-one years, though the ordinary period of enlistment is seven years "with the colors" and five years with the reserve. The mobilization of such troops consists largely in calling the reserves to the regular battalions to which they are attached and conveying them to

French Siege Artillery Mobilizing

the great regular camps of the United Kingdom such as Aldershot, in England, and The Curragh, in Ireland, whence they are forwarded to the seaports from which they are to embark. Infantry can be trained to march, maneuver, and handle the rifle sufficiently well to be able to take the field in a few weeks; but infantry is useless without cavalry, artillery, and engineers, and the training of men in these branches of the service requires much more time. It is highly important, also, that cavalry, infantry and artillery should become accustomed to coöperative tactics, necessitating practice maneuvers on a considerable scale.

In continental Europe the problem of providing sufficient trained men to take the field on short notice has been solved by the highly efficient system of universal compulsory military service. Over the greater part of Europe, in each year on a specified date, all the young men who have just passed their twentieth birthday present themselves at various military depots. In France, which has been striving desperately for years, in the face of an increasing disparity in population, to keep her army on a footing nearly equal to that of Germany, no



"THE BLACK WATCH," ONE OF BRITAIN'S FAMOUS REGIMENTS OF FIGHTING HIGHLANDERS

German Soldiers Resting After March in Belgium

youth who is physically fit can escape his three years of military service; but Germany has a yearly surplus of recruits whom she places in a special class, known as the Ersatz, or "Compensatory," Reserve, to be used to supply the losses of war when the occasion arises. Russia is also in the enviable military situation of having more available soldiers than she knows what to do with.

For two or three years these young men receive the grueling training that is necessary to make a soldier. Then they pass, for a period varying from five to eleven years, according to the country in which they happen to be born, into the first reserve, and although they are free to pursue their callings in civil life, they are formally enrolled as members of some reserve regiment or battery during this whole time.

Behind the active reserves are men of older years, who have settled down in business and home life. These men, until they have reached the age of forty-five or forty-eight years, are nevertheless included as members of second and third reserve organizations, and are liable to call in case the emergency demands their presence either at the front, in garrisons, or protecting lines of communication, thus releasing younger men for more active duty.

MOBILIZATION IN CANADA

The First Canadian Contingent of 32,000 Men Passing in Review Before H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught, the Governor-General, and Colonel Hughes, Minister of Defense, Before Leaving to Reinforce the British Army in France

German Baggage Train

Mobilization is primarily concerned with the regular forces and the incorporation into them of the active reserves. Just how each nation has solved its own problem has not yet been divulged, but certain features connected with the regular peace organization make it likely that France formed a large part of her reserves into divisions, adding one reserve division to the two divisions of which each Army Corps is normally composed. Germany, on the other hand, probably mobilized her reserves in the smaller units of brigades, uniting one reserve brigade to the two brigades that form a division in time of peace. In order to provide for the ready assimilation of the reserves, the regular battalions are always proportionately over-officered in time of peace.

All the problems relating to mobilization and the massing of armies in their positions along the frontier are worked out by the General Staff of each country. These highly educated and exceedingly able men, who are naturally officers of high rank, have for years been busy with plans for the contingency of war, and every detail of the

HIGHLANDERS IN FRANCE

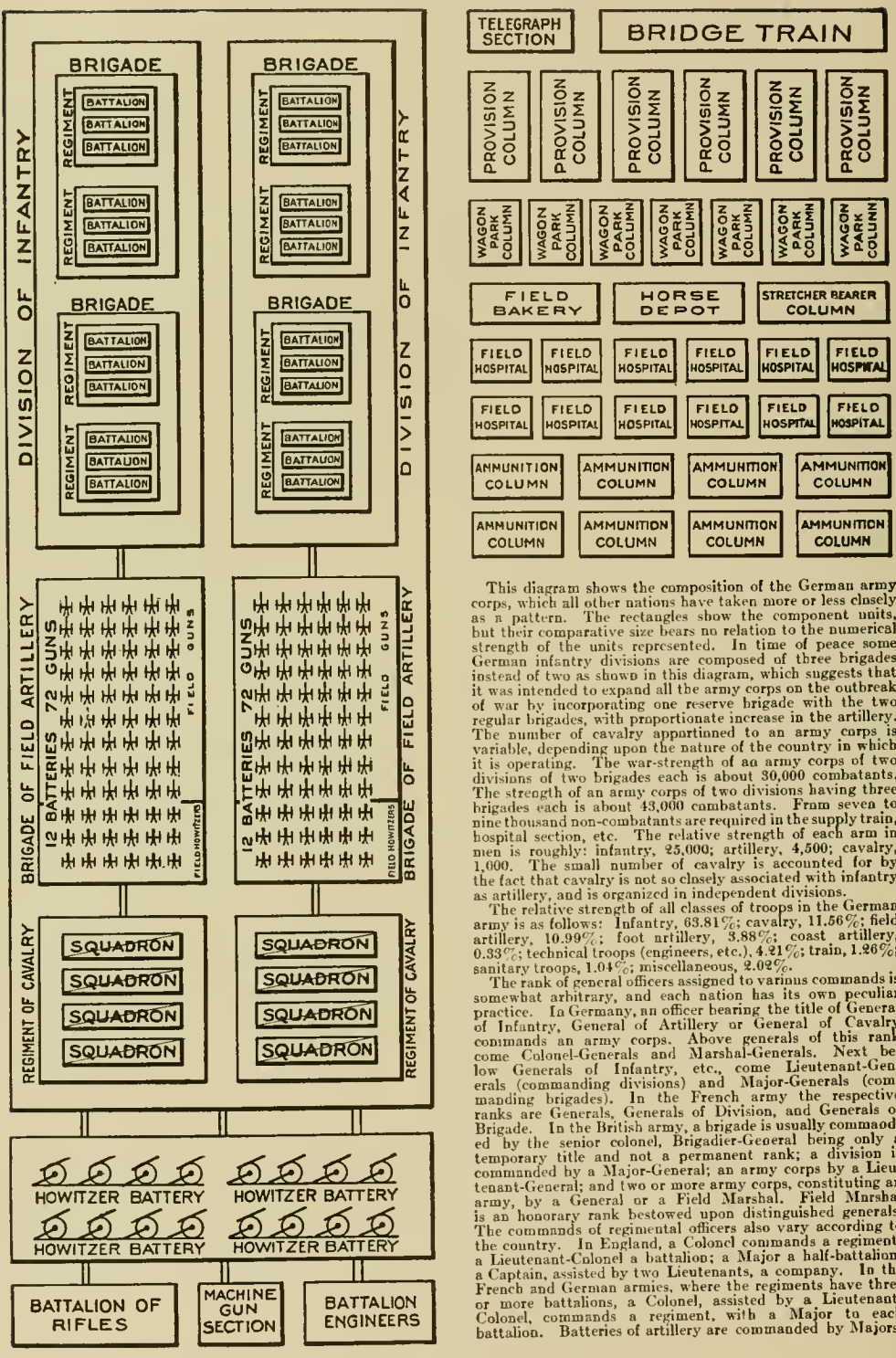
Brigade of Scottish Troops Crossing a Square in Boulogne After Landing from Transports. The War Office Has Provided the Highland Regiments with Khaki Skirts to Take the Place of Kilts During the Campaign

The Camp at Vesoul, a French Mobilization Center

preparation for invasion or counter-attack has long been made. Every general officer knows the task assigned to him and complete arrangements for transport of men, animals, guns, and provisions is made long in advance. Every soldier, when he receives notice to join the colors, instantly leaves his home with his little bundle, and, often with his wife and children beside him, walks to the barracks and dons the uniform.

The German Army Corps system, copied by all the Continental nations, has made swift mobilization possible. Each army corps, which is really a small independent army, consisting of all arms—cavalry, artillery, infantry and engineers—is recruited in the region immediately surrounding its headquarters. Reserves have therefore, as a rule, only a short distance to go in order to join their regiments. When every man is with his army corps and the army corps is ready to entrain or march to the place assigned it in the grand strategic plans of the Commander-in-chief—or Chief of the General Staff, as he is usually known in time of peace—the country's first-line forces are mobilized. It must be borne in mind that the active or mobile

DIAGRAM OF AN ARMY CORPS AND TRAIN



This diagram shows the composition of the German army corps, which all other nations have taken more or less closely as a pattern. The rectangles show the component units, but their comparative size bears no relation to the numerical strength of the units represented. In time of peace some German infantry divisions are composed of three brigades instead of two as shown in this diagram, which suggests that it was intended to expand all the army corps on the outbreak of war by incorporating one reserve brigade with the two regular brigades, with proportionate increase in the artillery. The number of cavalry appertinned to an army corps is variable, depending upon the nature of the country in which it is operating. The war-strength of an army corps of two divisions of two brigades each is about 30,000 combatants. The strength of an army corps of two divisions having three brigades each is about 43,000 combatants. From seven to nine thousand non-combatants are required in the supply train, hospital section, etc. The relative strength of each arm in men is roughly: infantry, 25,000; artillery, 4,500; cavalry, 1,000. The small number of cavalry is accounted for by the fact that cavalry is not so closely associated with infantry as artillery, and is organized in independent divisions.

The relative strength of all classes of troops in the German army is as follows: Infantry, 63.81%; cavalry, 11.56%; field artillery, 10.99%; foot artillery, 3.88%; coast artillery, 0.33%; technical troops (engineers, etc.), 4.21%; train, 1.26%; sanitary troops, 1.04%; miscellaneous, 2.02%.

The rank of general officers assigned to various commands is somewhat arbitrary, and each nation has its own peculiar practice. In Germany, an officer bearing the title of General of Infantry, General of Artillery or General of Cavalry commands an army corps. Above generals of this rank come Colonel-Generals and Marshal-Generals. Next below Generals of Infantry, etc., come Lieutenant-Generals (commanding divisions) and Major-Generals (commanding brigades). In the French army the respective ranks are Generals, Generals of Division, and Generals of Brigade. In the British army, a brigade is usually commanded by the senior colonel, Brigadier-General being only a temporary title and not a permanent rank; a division is commanded by a Major-General; an army corps by a Lieutenant-General; and two or more army corps, constituting an army, by a General or a Field Marshal. Field Marshal is an honorary rank bestowed upon distinguished generals. The commands of regimental officers also vary according to the country. In England, a Colonel commands a regiment; a Lieutenant-Colonel a battalion; a Major a half-battalion; a Captain, assisted by two Lieutenants, a company. In the French and German armies, where the regiments have three or more battalions, a Colonel, assisted by a Lieutenant-Colonel, commands a regiment, with a Major to each battalion. Batteries of artillery are commanded by Majors.

reserves are all men who have been graduated from the regular army not more than five or six years at the most, and who, after a few weeks of hardening, are just as good as the men with the colors.

The mobilization of the reserves of the second and third line is naturally a much more deliberate proceeding than the feverish embodiment of the first army. Men from about twenty-seven to thirty-nine years form the second reserve. They may be mobilized in complete army corps if necessary, or may be forwarded in smaller detachments to make up war losses, in accordance with the strain at the front.

As a last resort, the reserves of the third line, consisting of men from about forty to forty-five years of age, are called upon. The tactics of the last line are to some extent those of the guerilla. They wear no uniform and their aim is to harass the enemy whenever the opportunity offers, by sharpshooting, or "sniping," as it is called, by making night raids on lines of communication, cutting off stragglers from the enemy's line of march, and in any other way that the ingenuity of men fighting desperately for their homes may suggest.

THE NEW WARFARE

Air-dreadnoughts Encircling Cologne Cathedral

CHAPTER IV

THE NEW WARFARE

Wars have been waged since earliest history—bloody wars, destructive wars, but never one like this. The inventive genius of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries has produced many things to shorten the hours of labor, ease the strain on the scholar, and bring both families and nations into closer communication; and of these achievements we constantly boast; but while with one hand the Genius of the Age has wrought for the happiness of mankind, with the other it has multiplied and perfected the instruments of destruction, and all these have come into use in this fierce contest among the great nations of Europe—apparently destined not only to play their new part in the settlement of national disputes, but to increase the harvest of death and the desolation of a million homes.

When the "wooden walls" of our fathers were shattered in the shock of the sea fight, at least there was something afloat for the vanquished mariner to cling to; but now a thousand may go down in their great steel battle-ship—at once a fortress and a prison—and not one fragment of wreckage ever float above their "vast and wandering grave." Brave as ever their hardy ancestors were, they stand unflinching at their posts of duty; but they may be denied the satisfaction of striking or even seeing their enemy, when a sneaking submarine vessel inflicts a fatal wound beneath the water-line, and all the elaborate and costly structure, with its thunderous armament, goes for naught. And, again, it need not surprise us if occasionally two of the new dreadnoughts sink each other and go down at the same moment.

The stone balls that were hurled from the primitive cannon a little farther than the catapult could throw them are succeeded by rifled bombs that weigh hundreds of pounds and make a flight of miles or pierce a wall of solid steel and burst on the other side. The

German Zeppelin of the Type Which Dropped Bombs on Antwerp

Havoc Wrought by German Zeppelin at Antwerp

muzzle-loading musket, which decided many important conflicts, is succeeded by the breech-loading repeating rifle and the machine gun that pours out a continuous stream of bullets before which no troops can stand. And again a battalion may be hurled into the air by the explosion of mines and buried shells charged with a compound twenty times as powerful as gunpowder; and into intrenchments may be thrown shells that emit fumes to choke or poison many who are not struck by the flying fragments.

For centuries the comparative advantages of armor and weapons, fortifications and gun-fire, have alternated between the offensive and the defensive, as one device after another has been contrived or perfected. Most of those here mentioned give the advantage to the defenders. In the day of the muzzle-loader the defenders could fire one volley at an approaching foe, and then the assailant, coming on the run, was among them with the bayonet before they could reload. That famous weapon is of little further use, except as a spade for throwing up hasty intrenchments. A steady fire of repeating guns will literally annihilate a charging column in a few minutes, as has been done in early engagements of this war. But, on the other hand, the recent inventions for navigating the air appear to throw the margin of advantage again to the side of the assailants. There is far less use for spies and cavalry reconnoissances, when aviators can hover over the enemy and, out of easy reach, count his guns and his forces, map all his positions, and sometimes drop huge bombs upon camps and squadrons. Another aviator may be sent up to attack him; but the result is almost certain to be the destruction of both. Thus is realized the vision described by the poet more than seventy years ago:

> Heard the heavens fill with shouting, and there rained a ghastly dew
> From the nations' airy navies grappling in the central blue.

The Genius of Invention is now called upon to throw the advantage again to the defensive by producing a gun that will send a seldom-erring shot through a machine that is hundreds of feet overhead. The ordinary large gun, if fired perpendicularly, is liable to burst.

These are the novel elements in this tremendous contest; yet, with all their appalling destructiveness, they hardly appear to diminish the

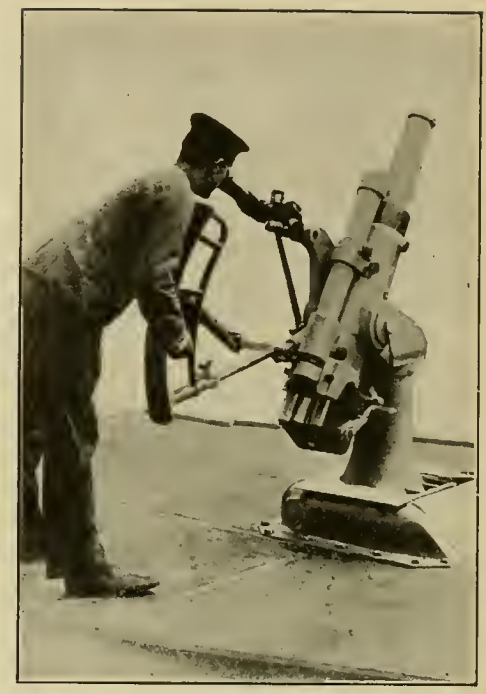
BRITISH DESTROYER FLOTILLA AT SEA

ardor with which the men on either side rush to the field that may be the field of honor, but is less the field of glory than the field of death. The Red Cross of mercy and the wonderful advances in medical and surgical science do their utmost; but the stretchers and ambulances are heavily loaded, the hospitals are crowded, and the mourning homes are beyond counting.

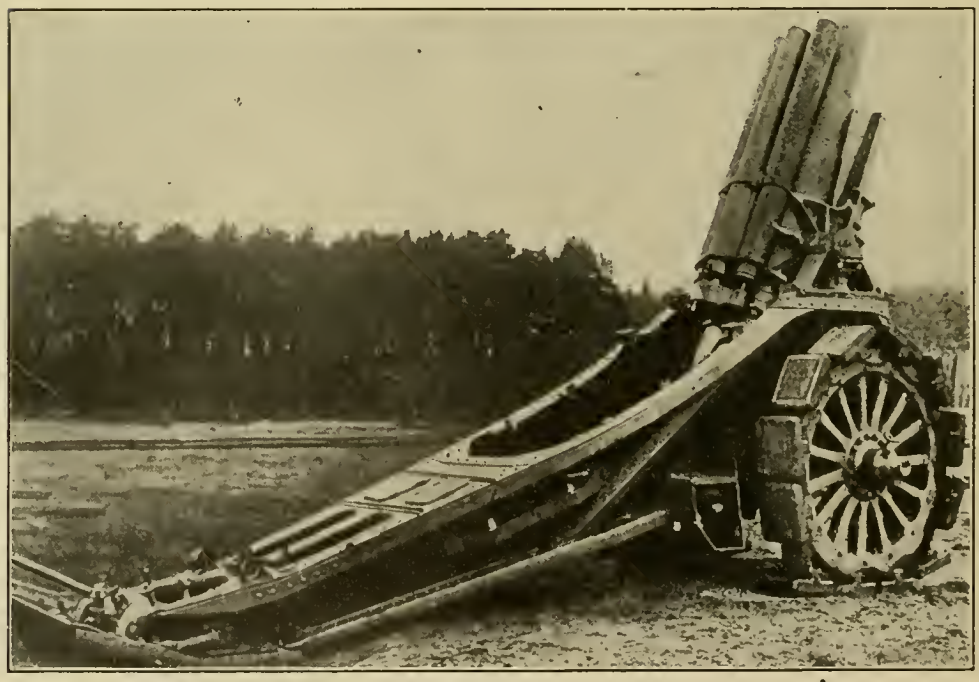
The old theory that the earth is finally to be destroyed by one vast conflagration is brought vividly to mind when we behold the flames of war bursting out at once over nearly the whole of Europe, as if civilization and all peaceful progress were doomed—not destroying the land, to be sure, but demolishing the works of man with which the land has been cultivated and adorned, sweeping tens of thousands of men into untimely graves, like the dust to which they so suddenly return, and reducing to ashes the happy homes of their children.

Thousands of men in these great armies must fall before peace is attained, and when peace does come it will leave thousands of homes desolate and the already heavy national debts enormously increased, while every people in the civilized world will feel the effects of the contest. Said George William Curtis, one of our most eloquent orators, "Every war is long, though it end to-morrow; every battle is terrible, though only your son perish." However this contest may terminate, it will leave an endless train of sorrows, hatreds, and despair.

German Field Howitzer



Anti-aëroplane Gun



One of the German 11-in. Howitzers That Battered the Forts at Liège

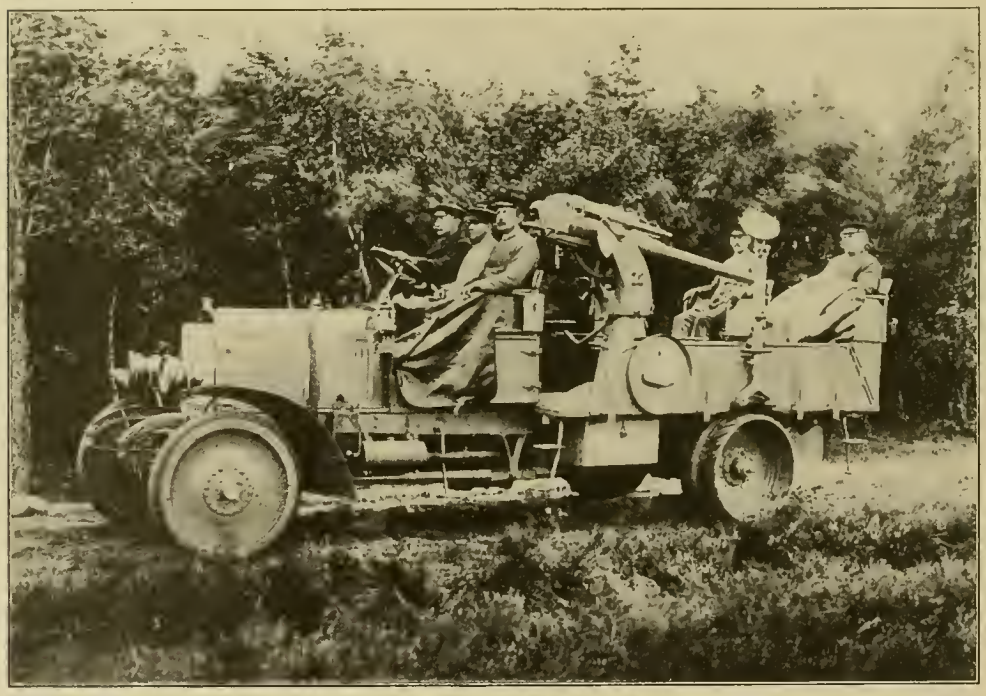
CHAPTER V

MILITARY IMPLEMENTS OF WAR

In the century that has elapsed since Waterloo, inventive genius has been incredibly busy in all departments of mechanics; but in the development of engines of slaughter it has fairly surpassed itself. Could the shades of Napoleon, Wellington, and Blücher return to their old battleground, once more drenched with blood, they would be astounded at the extraordinary variety of the instruments of destruction at the disposal of their successors in command and at their appalling precision, deadliness, and range. It must not be forgotten, however, that inventive skill has not confined itself to offensive measures alone. Defensive tactics have kept pace with offensive; and devices for protection have followed the introduction of new means of attack. Notwithstanding the terrific potentialities of modern war machinery, the present titanic conflict may prove therefore to be no more deadly in proportion to the numbers involved than those that have gone before. Lovers of peace have expressed the hope that those who were engaged in increasing the destructive capacity of war engines were most effectively promoting the cause of universal peace by making war so deadly that human beings could no longer engage in it. This war will demonstrate whether this view is well founded or not. Be that as it may, we may at least express the hope that its ghastly spectacles will permanently sate the appetite of mankind for bloodshed.

Explosives.—The motive power, so to speak, of all the major implements of modern warfare is explosive powder of one form or another, and before describing the implements themselves we will devote a paragraph to the uncanny substance in which such frightful powers of destruction are locked up.

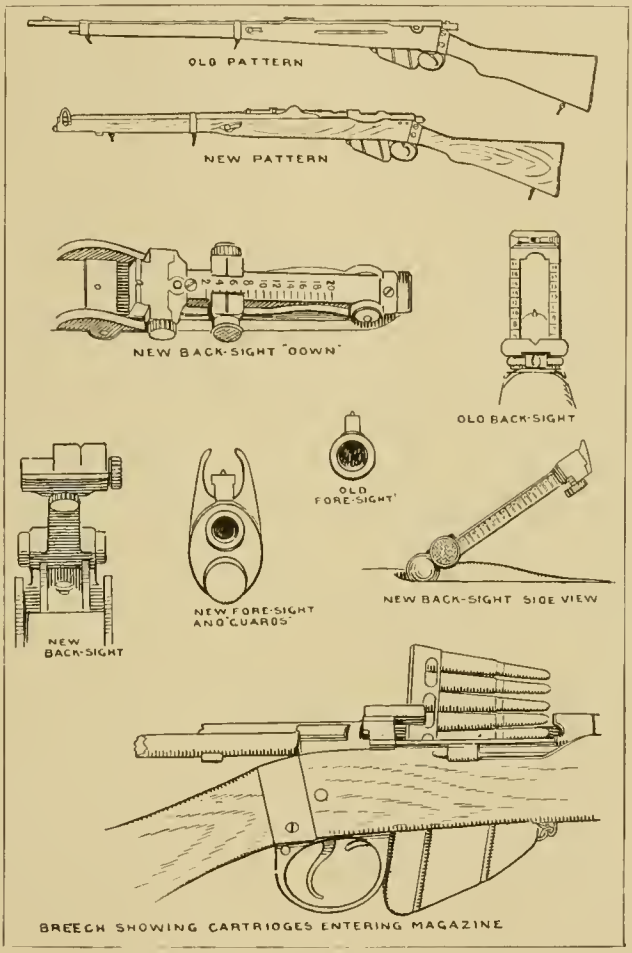
"Smokeless powder" is now in universal use. As a matter of fact, however, there is no such thing as an absolutely smokeless powder, and



AUTOMOBILE GUN, ESPECIALLY DESIGNED FOR ATTACKING AIRCRAFT

Motor Tractors and Guns Mounted on Automobiles Were an Outstanding Feature of the Swift German Advance Through Belgium and France

considerable vapor is noticeable at the muzzles of all large pieces. This is partly due to the small charge of black powder necessary to explode them. The practical invisibility conferred by smokeless powder is obviously of immense importance to the combatants. Smoke-



The New Short Rifle of the British Army

lessness is brought about by the fact that these powders leave no unconsumed residuum to be blown out of the muzzle in the form of smoke. The chief ingredients of all modern powders are nitrocellulose and nitroglycerine—both compounds of nitric acid. Chemically, they are all complex compounds of carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen and oxygen, and their explosive power is due to the fact that they are

capable of suddenly liberating volumes of their component gases vast in proportion to the bulk of the powder. Compared with old-fashioned gunpowder, they are "slow-burning" and instead of administering a single sudden blow to the projectile they push it, so to speak, along the barrel. This has made it possible to increase the power of the charge enormously without increasing the maximum pressure in the bore.

Smokeless powders are made in the form of cubes, flakes, or cords, whence the name of the English powder "cordite." They are usually exploded by means of fulminate of mercury caps. Most military smokeless powders burn harmlessly when merely ignited. For bursting shells several forms of picric acid (technically trinitrophenol) are used under various names, such as lyddite and melinite. Picric acid is a very high explosive. Recently a chemical substance known as "trinitrotolnol" has been introduced. Among the advantages that this has over picric acid is that it is less easily exploded, requiring a very heavy detonating shock.

Rifles.—Inasmuch as the bulk of the world's fighting on land falls to the lot of the infantrymen, who far outnumber all other arms of the service, and as the rifle is the principal arm of the foot-soldier, we may justly regard it as the most important weapon now in use. In its shortened form—the carbine—the rifle is also used by the cavalryman, and there is a tendency in modern tactics toward the frequent employment of cavalry as mounted infantry, fighting with firearms rather than with the typical cavalry weapons—the sword and the lance. These weapons may be noted in passing; but as they have been used for centuries we dismiss them by stating that the sword was abandoned by British infantry officers during the Boer War, and that the value of the clumsy lance is disputed. The entire German cavalry, including the Uhlans, who figure so frequently in the war news of the day, is armed with the lance.

Although the name "rifle" is applied specifically to the small arm fired from the shoulder, all modern firearms, from the great sixteen-inch coast-defense guns down to the pocket-pistol, are essentially rifles, as they all have rifled bores. That is to say, they have shallow spiral grooves running the length of the inside of the barrel. These spiral grooves cause the bullet to revolve on its own axis at an exceed-

ingly high rate (about 4,000 revolutions a second). The rotatory motion enables the bullet to travel over a much flatter arc of flight than one projected from a smooth-bore piece, keeps it truer in its flight, and gives it higher penetrating power. In a rifle the grooves make one complete turn of the barrel in about eight inches; hence in flight the bullet revolves once for each eight inches it travels. All modern military rifles have a magazine holding from five to ten cartridges, and they are loaded by drawing back and thrusting forward a

German Infantry with Mauser Rifles

bolt. These two movements eject the empty shell, throw a new cartridge into the chamber, and cock the piece ready for firing. The bolt can be removed, and it is so constructed that it can be rendered useless by a blow on some small but essential part. Soldiers are instructed thus to disable their weapons in case of a rout, in order to prevent them from being of immediate use to the enemy. Most rifle magazines are in the form of a metal box fitted below the chamber; but the magazine of the French Lebel is formed by a tube in the wooden stock beneath the barrel. A "cut-off" is usually provided, so that the weapon may be used as a single-shot piece, with the magazine held in reserve for an emergency. The modern rifle fires a small, long bullet

having about the diameter of a lead-pencil. As lead could not withstand the pressure of the powerful powder charges now used, bullets are made with a hard metal coating (usually nickeled copper) over a lead core. In order to make these hard bullets engage the spiral grooves of the barrel, they are made somewhat larger than the bore. The characteristic wound inflicted by the small modern bullet is a

French Soldiers with "Lebel" Rifles

clean-cut puncture, and often it will push aside the smaller blood-vessels. Modern bullet wounds, unless in a vital organ, are apt to heal quickly, and men have come out of a campaign as well as ever after being bored through by an astonishing number of these new "humane" projectiles. In warfare against savages a bullet with a soft nose (known as the "dum-dum") is used. This expands on impact and inflicts a wound of peculiar atrocity. The same result may be achieved by filing off the end of those bullets that have a soft core.

The fact that malicious individual soldiers cannot be prevented from slyly filing their bullets accounts for the inevitable charges that the enemy is using "dum-dums."

The following table gives complete particulars of the rifles used by the chief military powers:

	United States.	Great Britain.	France.	Germany.	Austria.	Russia.	Italy.	Japan.
Designation	Springfield.	Lee-Enfield. (Short Rifle.)	Lebel	Mauser, 1898	Mannlicher M. 1895.	3-line.	Mannlicher-Carcano	Year '30.
Date of Issue	1903.	1903.	1886–1893.	1900	1898.	1894.	1891	1900.
Calibre in inches	.300	.303–.305	.315	.311	.315	.300	.256	.256
Weight, empty, without bayonet	8 lbs., 15 oz.	8 lbs., 2½ oz.	9 lbs., 3½ oz.	9 lbs.	8 lbs., 5½ oz.	8 lbs., 15¼ oz	8 lbs., 6½ oz.	8 lbs., 9¼ oz.
Length of rifle in inches	43.212	44.5	51.12	49.4	50	51.875	50.75	50.5
Length of barrel in inches	23.79	25.19	31.496	29.05	30.12	32.25	30.75	31.0625
Number of grooves	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	6
Depth of grooves in inches	004	.0058	.0059	.0065	.008	.007	.006	.006
Twist, turns in calibres	1 in 33.3, right.	1 in 33, left	1 in 30, left.	1 in 30.2, right.	1 in 31, right.	1 in 31.6, right.	1 in 36, right.	1 in 30.7, right.
Magazine	Box, fixed under receiver, with cut-off.	Box, vertical, detachable, with cut-off.	Tube, with cut-off.	Box, vertical, fixed, under breech, without cut-off.	Box, vertical, fixed, under receiver, without cut-off.	Box, vertical, fixed, without cut-off.	Box, fixed under, receiver without cut-off.	Box, vertical, fixed, with movable bottom, without cut-off.
Cartridges in magazine	5	10	8	5	5	5	6	5
Extra cartridges in chamber	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Number of cartridges which can be fired in one minute	18	34	9	40	(unaimed) 30	24	15	25
Weight of whole cartridge in grains	392	415	447	431	455	363	331.8	348.5
Bullet, material	Cupro-nickel envelope; lead-tin core.	Cupro-nickel envelope; lead core with aluminum nose.	Cupro-nickel envelope; hard lead core.	Cupro-nickel envelope; steel core	Steel lubricated.	Cupro-nickel envelope; hard lead core.	Cupro-nickel.	Copper envelope; lead core.
Bullet, weight, in grains	150	174	231	227	244	214	163	162.9
Bullet, length, in inches	1.26	1.25	1.22	1.235	1.25	1.194	1.152	1.28
Weight of charge in grains	48–50	31.5	42.43	40.75	42.44	33	30.09	32
Extreme sighting in yards	2000	2000	2187	2187	2132	2096	2187	2187
Initial velocity, feet per second	2700	2460	2073	2073	2034	1985	2395	2390

As will be seen by this table, the small arms of all nations were adopted several years ago, and no radical improvements are of recent date. All, in fact, admit of more rapid fire than can be advantageously maintained except at very close quarters, and all have a far longer range than even expert marksmen can make effective. Indeed, their chief superiority over the antiquated single-shot large-bore breech-loaders lies in their flatter trajectory, or line of flight, which has increased the danger zone of the falling bullets. If it were possible to make a rifle that would drive a bullet parallel to level ground, it could penetrate an object of the height of a man throughout its entire course. On the other hand, a bullet approaching the ground at an angle of forty-five degrees that would just graze the top of the head of a man six feet high would strike at the feet of a man six feet behind him, and accordingly the danger zone of a volley of such bullets would be a belt only six feet wide. The smaller the angle that the flight of the bullet makes with the ground, therefore, the wider becomes this danger zone. The trajectory of the modern, small-caliber bullet is very low compared with old-fashioned weapons and is correspondingly more effective against large bodies of troops. The vertex of the trajectory of the English rifle is nine feet at a range of 800 yards. Its point-blank range, below which it may be fired with the back-sight lying flat, is 675 yards. Modern bullets, though "humane" in general, at times are capable of inflicting terrible wounds. At very short range their effect is almost the same as an explosive shell; and if, for any reason, such as defects in powder or construction, or after glancing, they "tumble" instead of revolving truly, they will rip and tear frightfully instead of puncturing cleanly.

The companion weapon of the rifle is the bayonet, which, affixed to the muzzle, converts the rifle into a spear for use at close quarters. It is quite likely that when the story of the war is finally told, it will appear that the decisive charges have been driven home by the bayonet even as in days of yore.

Machine Guns.—Machine guns are loaded and fired mechanically at high speed. They are divided into two classes, those in which the

Cameron Highlanders Operating a Maxim Gun

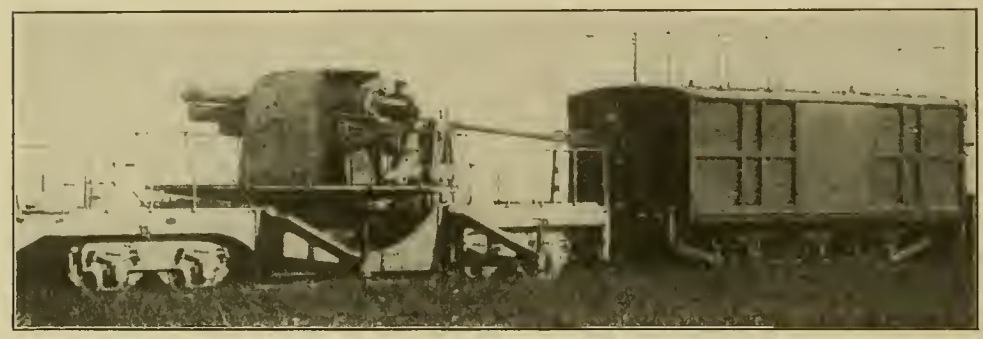
feed is maintained by the operation of a crank and those which are entirely automatic. The American Gatling is an example of the first type and the English Maxim of the second. The Gatling has ten barrels arranged in a circular group and is fed from a hopper. This hopper is filled with cartridges clipped side by side upon long metal strips. The turn of a crank throws a cartridge into the chamber of each barrel in succession and fires and ejects the empty shells in rotation. It is capable of firing at the terrific speed of 1,200 shots a minute. Although an excellent weapon, the Gatling has been superseded in the world's armies and navies by the entirely automatic gun.

These have only one barrel and the mechanism that actuates the loading, firing, and ejection of the empty shells is operated either (1) by the recoil of the barrel or (2) by a small amount of the powder-gas allowed to escape from a small hole near the muzzle after the passage of each bullet. Naturally these guns develop a tremendous amount of heat and most of them are cooled by a water-jacket or a radiator. Nevertheless they have to be allowed frequent intervals of rest for cooling. The English Maxim, which is the most widely used

French Machine Gun—Gas Operated Type

weapon of this type, is operated by the recoil of the discharge at a rate of 600 shots a minute. It is fed by woven belts of 250 cartridges held side by side in loops. The end of the belt is placed into the lock and a single cartridge into the chamber. A pull of the trigger fires the first cartridge and starts the mechanism. Empty shells fall in a shower from the side. Holding the trigger for just one second will speed seven shots on their way. The ordinary infantry cartridge is used in the standard weapon; but automatic guns firing as large a missile as a one-pound explosive shell at the rate of 300 a minute are in use. The English Maxim-Nordenfeldt, which, during the Boer War, got the name of the "pom-pom" from the peculiar drumming

sound it emits in action, is a one-pounder automatic. Semi-automatic guns are used extensively in the naval service. In weapons of this type the recoil of the gun ejects the empty shell and throws the breech block into position to receive a new shell inserted by hand. Guns as large as the three-inch thirteen-pounder are operated in this way. Machine guns are mounted on carriages, tripods, parapets of forts and rails of warships. They are light and portable, the Maxim weighing only about thirty-five pounds. The tripod is the usual mounting. The French have recently adopted a machine gun which is hardly larger than a rifle and can be fired in the same way, by a man lying down, at the rate of 500 shots a minute.

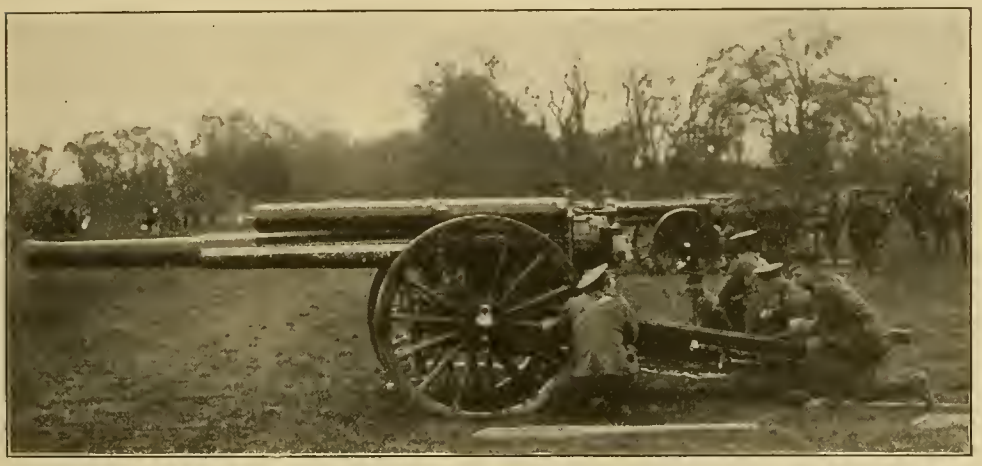


French Siege-gun on Truck of Armored Train

Under favorable conditions the machine gun is capable of inflicting frightful damage; but like a great many other modern war devices it has an awful capacity for wasting costly ammunition. On account of their excessive vibration and "jump," they are very difficult to aim and control and they have a bad habit of "jamming" at critical moments. The Maxim gun is used by the Russians and Germans as well as by the English. France and Japan use the Hotchkiss, a gas-operated radiator-cooled weapon. Austria uses the Schwarzlose, a remarkably fine weapon, water-cooled, and operated by the powder-gas. Italy has adopted the Permio, which operates on the recoil principle. The American Colt is operated by gas and relies for cooling on its very thick barrel.

Artillery Guns.—The most important large weapon used by modern armies in the field is the piece with which the field artillery is armed. Usually there are four or six of these guns to each battery,

as the tactical unit of field artillery is termed. While they differ in detail in each army, the typical field piece of to-day has a caliber of about three inches and fires a shell weighing from twelve to fifteen pounds, at a velocity of about 2,000 feet a second, to a distance of about 7,500 yards. They have hydraulic and spring cylinders for checking recoil. A shield of hardened steel, placed between the wheels of the gun-carriage, protects the crew. French ordnance officers have secretly developed their field artillery to an extraordinary pitch of perfection and, if the predictions of some authorities are

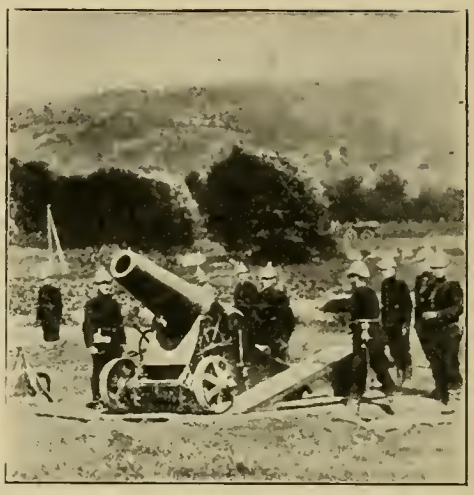


English 60-pounder Siege Guns

borne out, the French artillery may prove a decisive factor in this war. Field batteries are also equipped with breech-loading mortars, which are short pieces intended for vertical firing against troops under cover from direct fire. Intermediate in length between the regular field guns and the short mortars are howitzers, which are used to fire shells at a high angle of elevation, with a small muzzle velocity. They vary in size from the small field howitzer to the great siege pieces 16 inches in caliber. Their shells carry heavy explosive charges, and are terribly effective in plunging down upon intrenchments and fortifications.

Horse artillery, which is expected to keep pace with cavalry, is equipped with lighter pieces than the field artillery, which operate usually in coöperation with infantry. In siege operations against strongly fortified places, special heavy guns have to be brought up

English Artillerymen with Field-gun on Pontoons



German 12-in. Mortar, for Use Against Fortifications

from the siege train, as the heavy guns and their equipment, carried by every army in the field, are called.

These field pieces are all breech-loading rifles. The principal projectiles with which they are served are of two kinds—common shell and shrapnel. Common shells contain a heavy bursting-charge of some high explosive, such as lyddite or maximite. Shrapnel shells are filled with bullets. They contain a light charge of powder, just sufficient to burst the shell, allowing the bullets to spread out and continue their course. Shrapnel is directed against troops; common shell is used both against troops in close order and for destroying guns and other large objects. Shrapnel is particularly effective against troops behind earthworks and intrenchments.

Shells are exploded by fuses, which are designed so that an exploding charge will be fired either immediately on impact, delayed for a desired number of seconds after striking, or at any time in the flight of the missile. These fuses are screwed into the noses of the shells used by field pieces. They are ingenious and rather complicated devices. The safest fuse is one in which the mechanism of discharge cannot work until armed by the rotary motion of the shell leaving the gun. The shells of field pieces and of all large guns are made to engage the grooves of the rifled barrels of the guns by means of a

band of copper at the base, which is driven into and fills up the grooves as the shell leaves the chamber. It thus receives the same rotary motion as the rifle bullet.

At close quarters, artillery use case shot, which is merely a cylindrical box of bullets, made so as to break up immediately on leaving the muzzle of the gun, scattering the bullets across a wide front. Star shells are sometimes used at night to illuminate the enemy's posi-

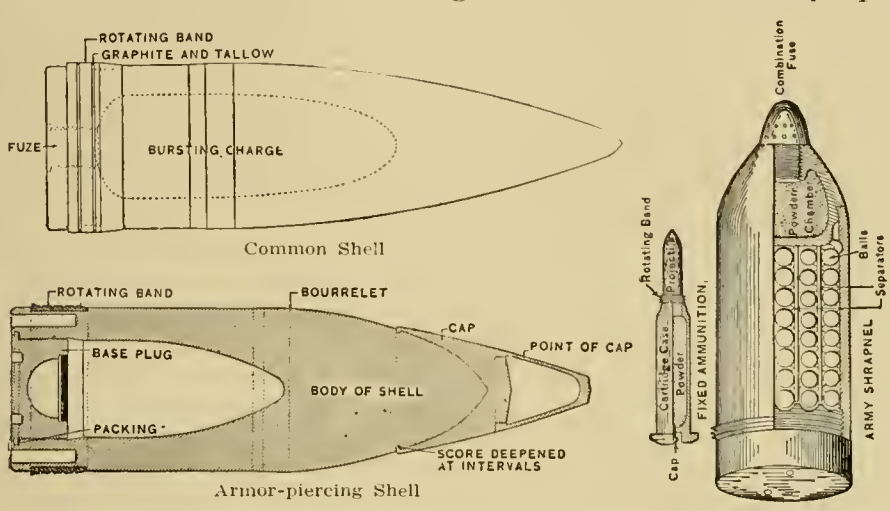


Diagram Showing Structure of Common Shell, Shrapnel and Armor-piercing Shell

tion. These shells will burn with a brilliant light for about forty seconds.

The introduction of aircraft into warfare, a novel feature of the present conflict in Europe, has brought entirely new types of guns into prominence, both for offensive use by such craft and for defense against them. Aëroplanes and air-ships have been fitted with light weapons for use in air-fighting, and special types of carriages permitting vertical and high-angle fire have been devised for guns designed to bring down the enemy's aircraft. The automobile has been pressed into service as a means of transport for such weapons.

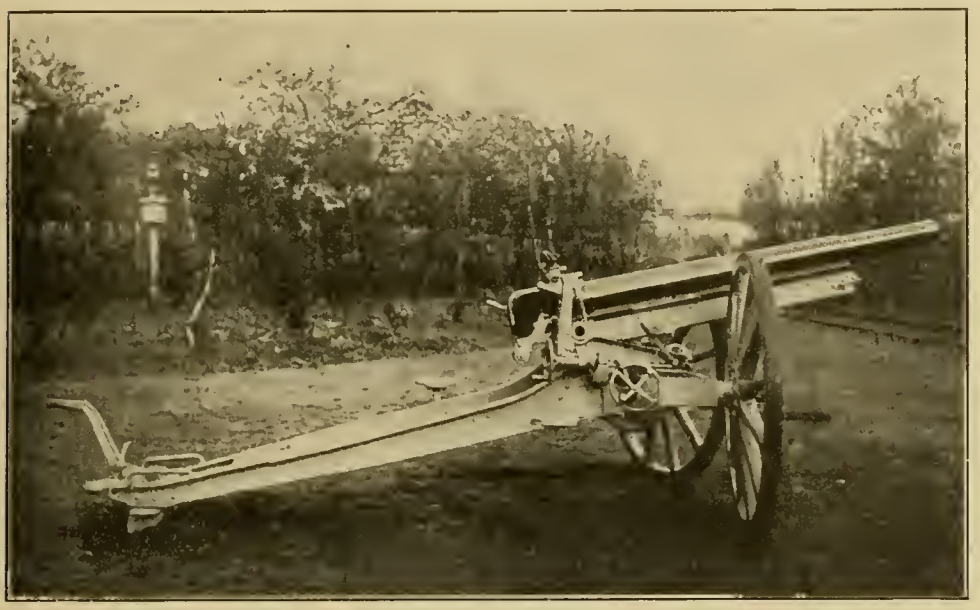
Hand Grenades.—Though the reader may start when he sees hand grenades mentioned in an article on modern implements of war, it is a fact that these antiquated instruments were revived during the Russo-Japanese War and with such effect that considerable attention has been devoted to perfecting them. A grenade is a bomb thrown by

hand. They are effective at close range, particularly in storming forts and intrenchments. There are also devices for throwing grenades from small guns. A mine grenade has been invented recently. These are buried in the ground over which troops are expected to pass, and are fired at the right moment. The grenades rise a short distance from the surface—being prevented from soaring into the air by small chains—then burst and shoot out a mass of projectiles parallel to the ground in all directions.

French Siege-gun with Motor Tractor

Automobiles.—France has led in the adaptation of the motor-car to military purposes. Some time ago armored automobiles carrying machine and other light guns were built; but it is doubtful whether the automobile will figure much in this capacity. Its field will be mainly that of transport. Powerful motor-cars have been built for hauling heavy guns and trains of wagons. These cars are equipped with capstans for drawing themselves out of holes and for pulling their trailers up steep inclines. They have endured severe tests over rough country. The public imagination has been touched by the news that the French commander-in-chief uses a swift automobile, driven by a famous racing-driver, as a means of rapid transport on the long line over which troops extend in modern warfare. The French have also recently introduced an automobile that is fitted as an X-ray operating-room, the motor being used to drive the dynamo of the photographic

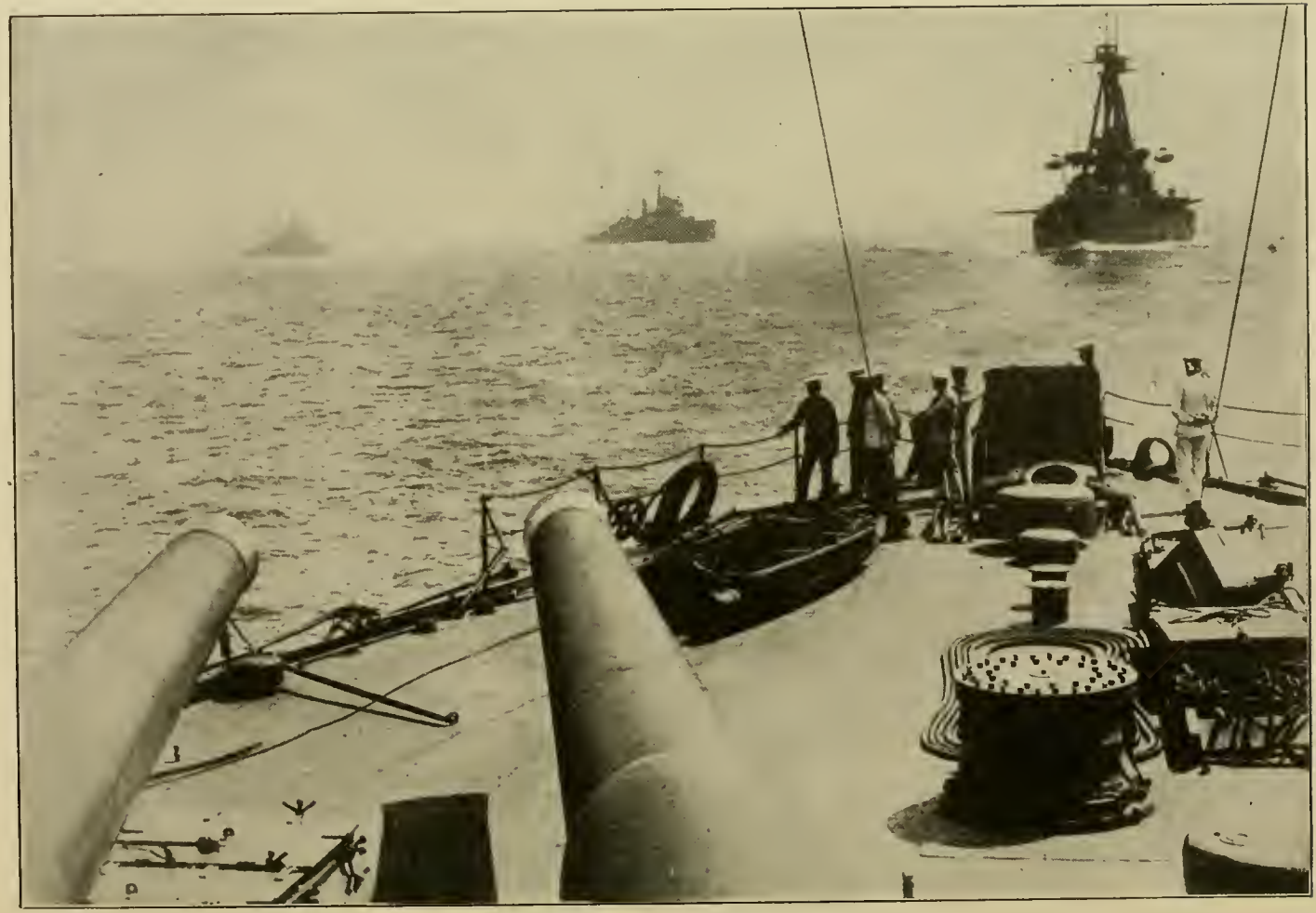
apparatus after the car has taken up its station. Automobiles have been fitted up as sleeping-cars and movable kitchens for officers of high rank. Special motor vans for the transport of wireless equipment, aëroplanes and gas-tanks for replenishing and filling dirigibles, have been constructed. In a country intersected by a network of good roads, as Europe is, the automobile may obviously be put to



German Field Piece with Interlocking Wheels

a variety of uses. Bicycles are used in modern armies mainly by despatch-bearers and members of the signal corps.

The Spade.—The subject of military implements cannot be closed without a reference to the humble spade and shovel. Intrenchment plays a very important part in field operations and gives the spade a high rank as an implement of war. Ingenious light combination tools, which can be used either as a pick or a shovel, are carried by European infantryman. Canadian infantry carry a spade, the blade of which has a hole through which the rifle barrel can be passed. A hinged handle makes it possible for a rifleman lying prone to utilize this spade as a very effective head shield. In an emergency the foot-soldier resorts to his bayonet as a spade and throws up as large a heap of earth as he can, for protection against the enemy's fire.



H. M. S. "IRON DUKE" LEADING BRITISH FLEET TO SEA

CHAPTER VI

WAR-SHIPS AND NAVAL IMPLEMENTS OF WAR

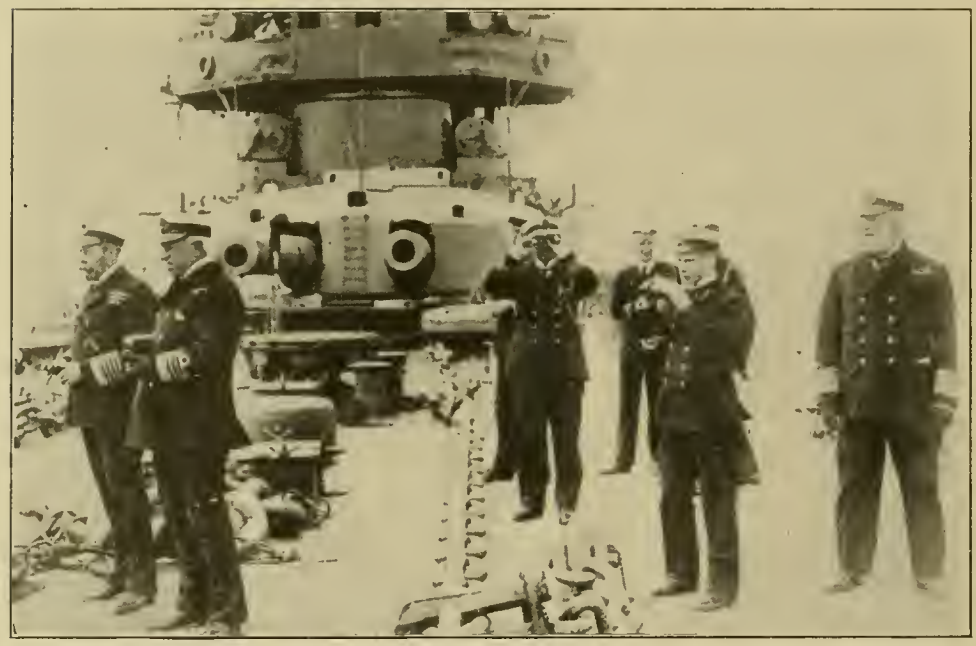
The popular imagination is more deeply stirred by naval than by land operations, not only because of the ever fresh romance of the sea but because modern weapons of war have been carried to their extreme pitch of perfection, both of precision and of power, in marine construction, and also because of the awful concentration of destructive forces which a great sea-fight under present conditions will entail.

Battle-ships.—The most terrible engine of destruction that human ingenuity has been able to devise is the modern battle-ship. "Battle-ship" is a technical term applied to war-ships of the heaviest class, strongly protected by thick plates of the hardest and toughest steel that science has been able to produce, and armed with large guns of extreme range, throwing a gigantic shell of high penetrating power bearing a charge of appalling explosive force. For many years a bitter fight has been in progress between the gun-makers and the makers of armor-plate. Many times the armor-plate makers have thought they had at last produced a plate that would withstand the shock of any projectile, only to face a new gun of still greater penetrating power. The victory rests to-day with the gun-maker, for guns of the latest naval type can punch a clean hole through eighteen inches of the finest armor.

The advent of the English "Dreadnought" in 1905 brought about a revolution in the construction of battle-ships. Previously, battle-ships had carried a main battery of four heavy guns in turrets fore and aft, and rows of lighter guns along each side. The American "Connecticut," of 16,000 tons, armed with four twelve-inch, eight eight-inch and twelve seven-inch guns, is a fine example of the earlier type. The "Dreadnought" ushered in the all-big-gun ship, carrying all heavy guns of uniform size in turrets on the deck, and a secondary armament of light guns for repelling torpedo craft. The dreadnoughts are supposed to be so far superior to vessels of the older type

("pre-dreadnoughts," as they are termed) as to render them obsolete for use in the first line of battle. The present war may put to the test this famous controversy as well as many others that have raged in naval circles. The small battle-ship, with few guns, has always had its advocates.

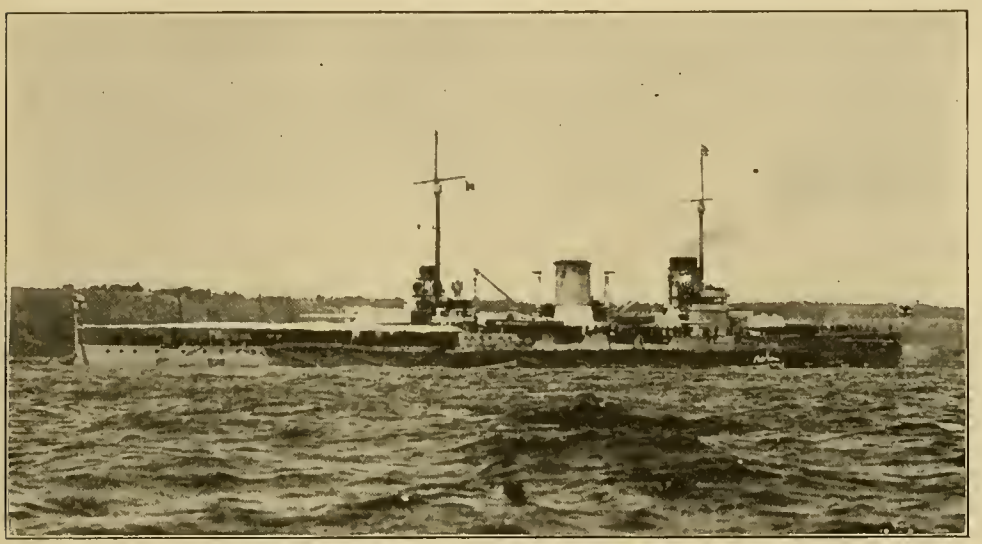
In spite of hostile criticism, however, all the naval powers have been active in the construction of monster battle-ships, until we now



Battle-ship "Neptune"—King George, Admiral Callaghan and the Prince of Wales on Deck

have a new class of "superdreadnoughts." England, in fact, has outdone the superdreadnought and with her "Queen Elizabeth" and her four sister-ships (some of which may be completed in time to figure in this war, as they are due for completion in October, 1914, and early in 1915), she has begun a new era in battle-ship construction. The "Queen Elizabeth" is 650 feet long and will displace 27,500 tons. (The "displacement" of a ship is its dead weight, so called because a floating body displaces a volume of water equal to its own weight. It must not be confused with the "tonnage" of a merchant ship which is an entirely different measurement.) She will be protected by a belt

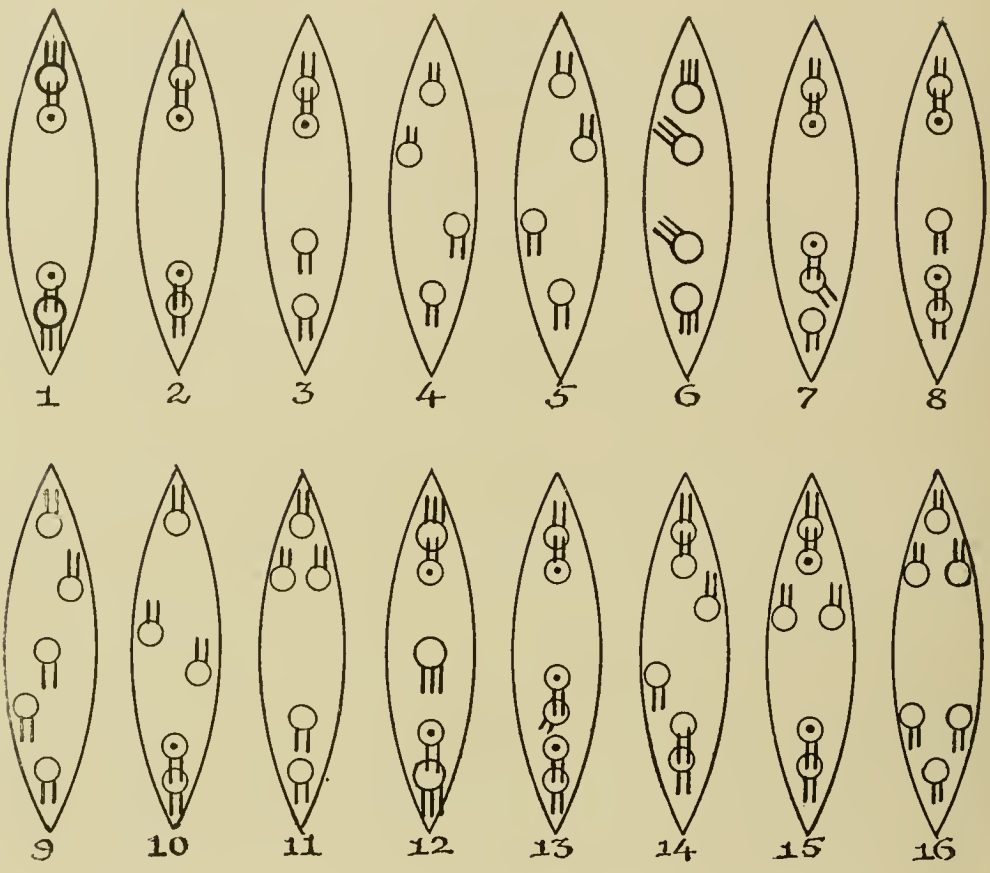
of 13½-inch armor on her water line and 10 inches on her middle belt. Her guns will be protected by 14-inch turrets. As with all battle-ships, parts of her bow and stern are unarmored, since it is not possible for a ship to carry the weight of a complete suit of armor. She has the extreme speed of 25 knots. (The English Admiralty knot is 6,080 feet, or about 1⅙ miles. A speed of 25 knots means about 29 land miles an hour.) Her eight 15-inch guns give her the most powerful armament ever mounted on a warship. She will carry an auxiliary



German Battle-Cruiser "Moltke"

battery of 16 6-inch guns and—a significant sign of the times—12 3-inch anti-aëroplane guns. Five 21-inch torpedo-tubes complete her armament. Her 58,000-horse-power turbine engines, driving four screws, will be supplied with steam by oil-burning boilers. Such is the "last word" in naval construction at the time of the present European struggle. She will cost about $13,000,000.

Battle-ship Cruisers.—A recent development in naval construction is the battle-ship cruiser, or battle-cruiser, in which armor is sacrificed to speed. These ships are classed as dreadnoughts and are almost as heavily armed as battle-ships of that class. The English "Tiger" represents the extreme development of this extraordinary class of ships. She has the enormous displacement of 29,000 tons,



Plates Showing Disposition of Heavy Guns and Turrets in Recent All-Big-Gun Battle-ships and Battle Cruisers

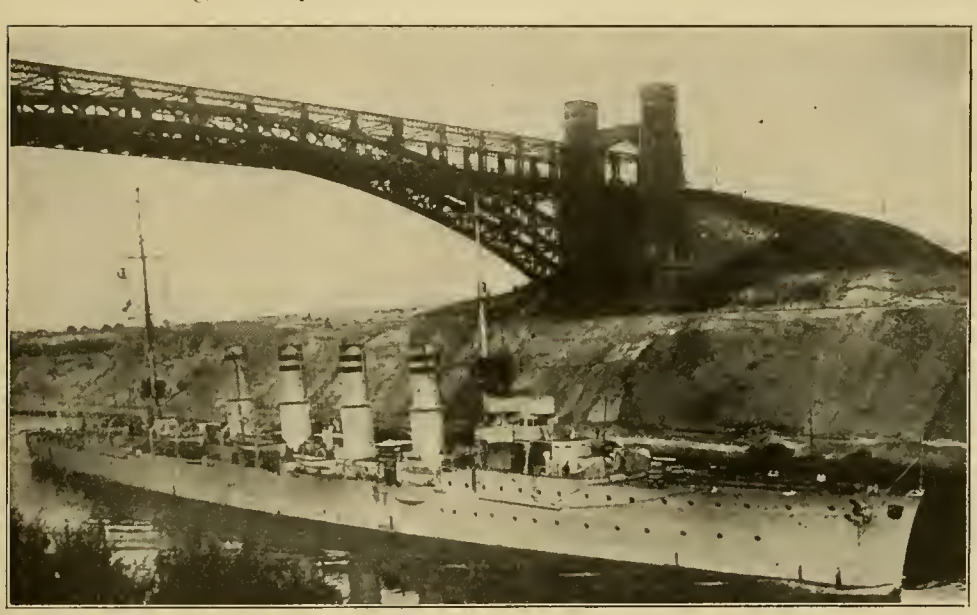
(NOTE.—A black dot in the center of a turret indicates that the guns of that turret are sufficiently elevated to fire over the adjacent turret.)

1. *Nevada, Oklahoma* (U. S.), 14-inch guns. 2. *Michigan, South Carolina* (U. S.), 12-in. 3. *Lion, Princess Royal, Queen Mary* (British), 13.5-in. 4. *Inflexible, Invincible, Indomitable, Indefatigable, Australia, New Zealand* (British), 12-in. 5. *España, Alfonso XIII., Jaime I.* (Spanish), 12-in.; *Von der Tann* (German), 11-in. 6. *Gangut, Poltava, Petropavlovsk, Sevastopol* (Russian); *Viribus Unitis*, "V," (Austrian); *Dante Alighieri* (Italian); all 12-in. Plan 4 with triple-gun turrets has been suggested for Russian ships. 7. *Delaware, North Dakota, Florida, Utah* (U. S.), 12-in. 8. *Texas, New York* (U. S.), 14-in.; *Orion, Thunderer, Conqueror, Monarch, King George V., Centurion, Ajax, Audacious* (British), 13.5-in. 9. Plan suggested by Mr. J. McKechnie (Vickers Co.) for 16,000-ton ship with internal-combustion engines. 10. *Neptune, Hercules, Colossus* (British), 12-in. 11. *Dreadnought, Bellerophon, Temeraire, Superb, St. Vincent, Collingwood, Vanguard* (British), 12-in. 12. *Conte di Cavour, Leonardo da Vinci, Giulio Cesare* (Italian), 12-in. 13. *Wyoming, Arkansas* (U. S.), 12-in. 14. *Moreno, Rivadavia* (Argentine); *Minas Geraes, San Paulo* (Brazilian), 12-in. 15. *Courbet, Jean Bart, France, Paris* (French), 12-in. 16. *Kawachi, Settsu* (Japanese), 12-in.; *Nassau, Westfalen, Rheinland, Posen* (German), 11-in.; *Ostfriesland, Helgoland, Thuringen, Oldenburg* (German), 12.2-in.

although she carries an armor belt of only nine inches. Her main armament consists of eight 13.5-inch guns. She has engines of 78,000 horse-power, giving her a speed of 28 knots. The "Lion," a somewhat smaller ship, has made 30 knots. The German "Goeben," whose elusive qualities were so frequently referred to in the early news of this war, is a battle-ship cruiser. All recent battle-ships have

an armored upper deck and armored gratings over the funnels for protection against aëroplanes.

Cruisers.—Cruisers are light-armed swift vessels, used mainly for scouting, patrolling, and convoying merchant vessels. The great speed of the new battle-ships and battle-ship cruisers has relegated cruisers of the old type to a secondary place. Cruisers are classed as "unprotected cruisers," which are without armor of any kind except around their guns; "protected cruisers," which have no vertical armor



German Protected Cruiser "Breslau" in the Kiel Canal

but are protected by an armored deck over their machinery, curving at each side below the water-line; and "armored cruisers," which have light side armor and are in effect light battle-ships.

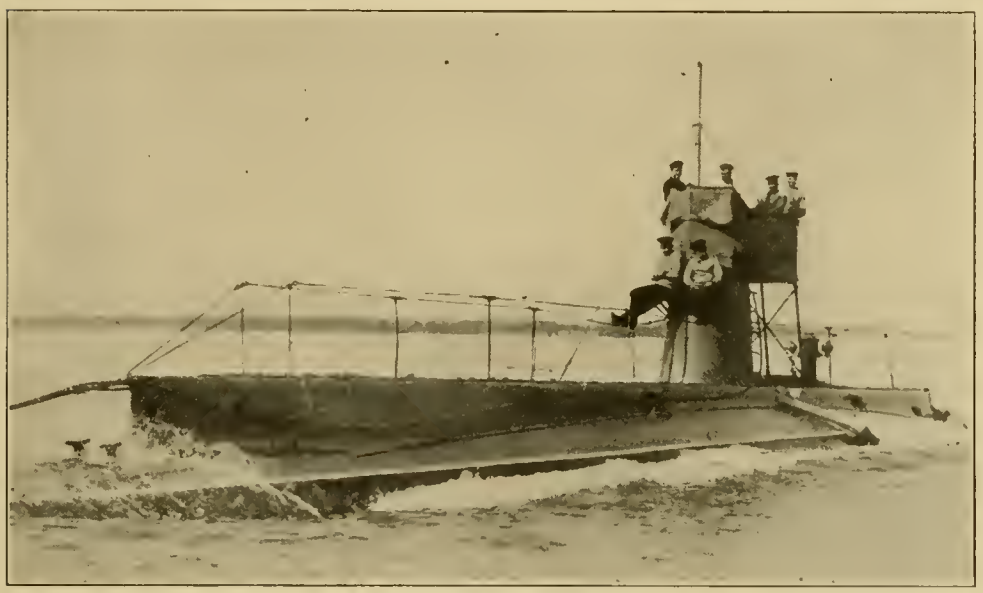
Destroyers.—Torpedo-destroyers, usually shortened to "destroyers," is the name applied to a class of exceedingly swift small vessels. They were originally designed to cope with torpedo-boats, vessels of a smaller and slower class, but have become the highest type of torpedo-boats themselves. They carry light guns, but their main weapon is the deadly torpedo. These vessels are large enough to maintain themselves at sea for long periods, and in speed they exceed all other sea-going craft. Slipping stealthily over the water, they suggest some

British Destroyer "Nubian"—the Fastest Ship in the World

beast of prey, and their swift night attacks are greatly dreaded by large ships. The English "Swift" may be taken as the extreme type of destroyer. She is 345 feet long and displaces 1,800 tons. With engines of 30,000 horse-power, which is a good deal more powerful than the engines of most Atlantic liners, this terrible little vessel can maintain a speed higher than 35 knots, or more than 40 miles an hour, and faster than most express trains. She is armed with four 4-inch guns and two deck torpedo-tubes.

Submarines.—A new and peculiarly sinister type of craft, the submarine, is to receive its first test in this war. Although really practical vessels of this type have been in use only about twenty-five years, they have been so far perfected that Admiral Sir Percy Scott asserts that they have already sounded the death-knell of the battle-ship. This assertion has been sharply contested; but the recent astounding feat of a German submarine, or submarines, in sending to the bottom three British armored cruisers within a few minutes seems to vindicate the prophecy of the English admiral. Nevertheless, the earlier exploit

of a British cruiser in destroying a German submarine, the whereabouts of which was disclosed by the appearance of its periscope above the surface, with two shots, shows that the operations of this class of boats are attended with grave peril. Submarines are made to dive by pumping water into ballast tanks, in co-operation with the action of horizontal rudders, and they are operated by gasoline engines when running on the surface. Before diving, the gasoline engine is cut off, and all surface openings are closed by valves. An electric

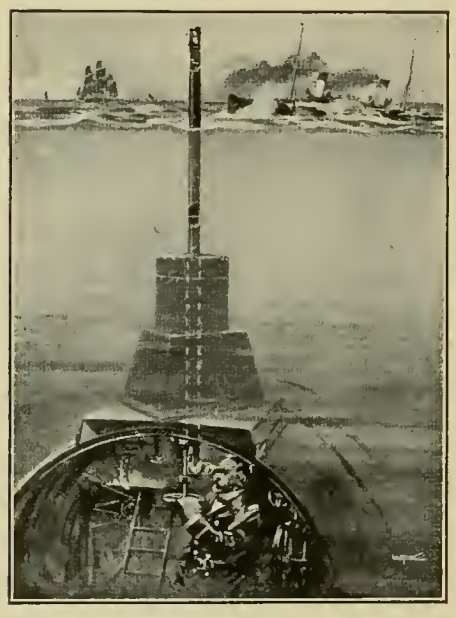


British Submarine Running Awash

motor, driven by a current stored up in accumulators while the craft has been running awash, is then thrown into operation. It would be unsafe to use gasoline engines below the surface because of escaping gas, and the telltale trail of bubbles that the exhaust would throw up to the surface. Air for respiration and for operating the torpedo-tube at the bow is stored up under high pressure in suitable tanks. Chemicals for purifying the air are carried. White mice, which squeak when they smell escaping gases, are regular members of the submarine's crew. The weapon of the submarine is the torpedo.

Under favorable conditions, the destructive capacity of the submarine is enormous; but these vessels labor under many serious disad-

vantages. Fatal accidents among them have been very frequent in all navies. They are exceedingly uncomfortable to the crew at all times, and for obvious reasons they are habitable only for a short time when submerged. The maintenance of balance is a difficult problem, and even though a submarine approaches close enough to a battle-ship to discharge a torpedo, she may not be able to direct it properly. When the vessel is below the surface, objects can be seen only a few feet away; and even when the submarine is near the surface a battle-ship could not be seen at a distance of more than one hundred feet. The faster the boat is moving the more obscure becomes the surrounding water. The submarine, being practically blind, therefore, has been fitted with eyes in the form of "periscopes." The periscope is a mirror fitted at an angle in the top of a tubular mast and capable of being revolved horizontally to sweep the horizon. The image of objects on the surface is reflected down this tube to a properly placed mirror below, so that the commander of the craft, by looking into the mirror before him, can see what is going on above the surface of the water so long as the periscope-box remains unsubmerged. Unfortunately for the submarine, however, this periscope is a certain tell-tale of its whereabouts, and it was by a shot through its periscope that the British cruiser previously mentioned blinded the German submarine and brought it to the surface, when a second shot sent it to the bottom. At night, the handicaps of the submarine are obviously greatly increased. Despite its drawbacks, however, the submarine is a fiendish contrivance, and though it may not do all that its champions expect of it, it has been brought to a high degree of perfection and it has already given a sufficiently horrible account of itself. England has nearing completion the largest submarine in the world, the



The Eyes of the Submarine

British Cruiser Squadron—H. M. S. "Lion" Leading

"Nautilus." The extraordinary features of this craft are her size (1,500 tons) and her high speed on the surface (21 knots), enabling her to keep pace with the main fleet on the high seas. She will have a submerged speed of about 16 knots and will be armed with six torpedo-tubes. Most of the submarines now in service, however, are of an earlier, smaller, and much less efficient type than this dreadful engine of war. They are usually from 150 to 200 tons, and are from 100 to 150 feet in length. They have a radius (distance that can be sailed without replenishing the stock of fuel) of about 1,000 miles on the surface and 100 to 150 miles under water.

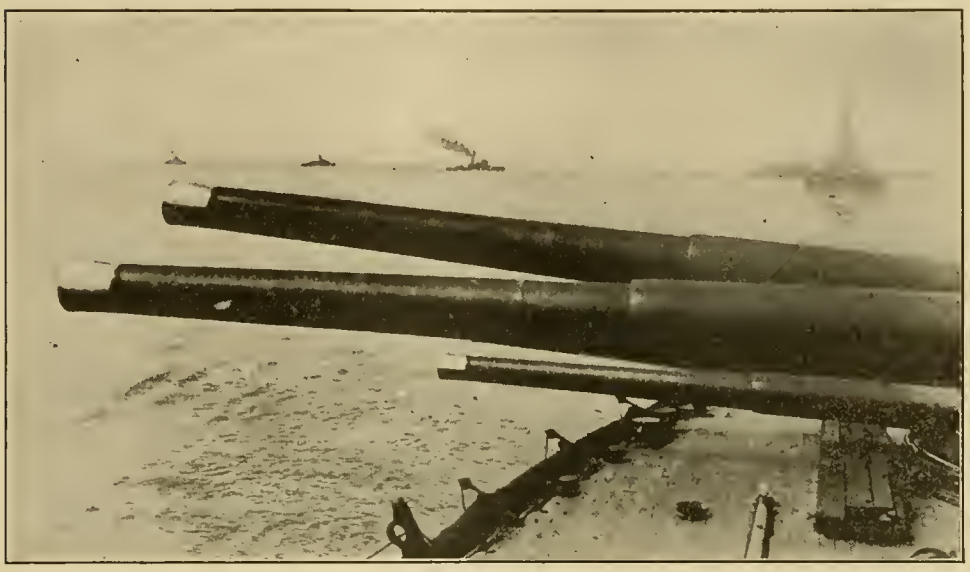
Naval Guns.—The battle-ship is essentially a floating platform for a battery of powerful guns. In fact, with the exception of a very few 16-inch American coast-defense guns, the heaviest weapons in existence are now afloat. We cannot here go into the disputes that have been waged over the respective merits of the big guns of the various nations, and it would be tedious to describe the guns of each nation in detail. In general, these guns are all very much alike, and in order to give the reader an idea of the size and power of the guns that constitute the main offensive armament of the modern battle-ship we may take the English 13.5 inch as typical. This gun weighs 76 tons and is 45 calibers (60.75 feet) long. It will throw a projectile weighing 1,400 pounds a distance of more than ten miles with a muz-

The 11-inch Guns of the German Battle-Cruiser "Moltke"

zle velocity of 2,821 feet a second. All ships of the dreadnought class carry as their main battery from eight to twelve guns of not less than 12-inch caliber, usually mounted in pairs in heavily armored revolving turrets. Several nations have recently mounted three guns in a turret, and, in her four great dreadnoughts now building, France has taken the bold step of mounting four guns in a turret, believing the advantages of concentrated fire and simultaneous handling of the whole battery to be worth the risk of exposing all four to destruction by one well-placed shot.

The largest modern gun is simply a rifle on a large scale, embodying no essential principle not found in the small weapon. Powerful and swiftly operating machinery, either hydraulic or electric, raises its great muzzle in the air and swings it across the horizon in search of its prey. Its shell is raised into position and thrust into the breech by machinery, as a projectile weighing three quarters of a ton cannot be manipulated by hand. The great breech-block swings on hinges and is locked by a slight turn of a crank. The powder-charge, weighing about 300 pounds, is packed in silk bags, as coarser fabrics may leave unburned fragments and explosions may ensue. They are usually fired by closing an electric switch, though they can be fired by a percussion trigger. The cost of firing each charge is about $600. One

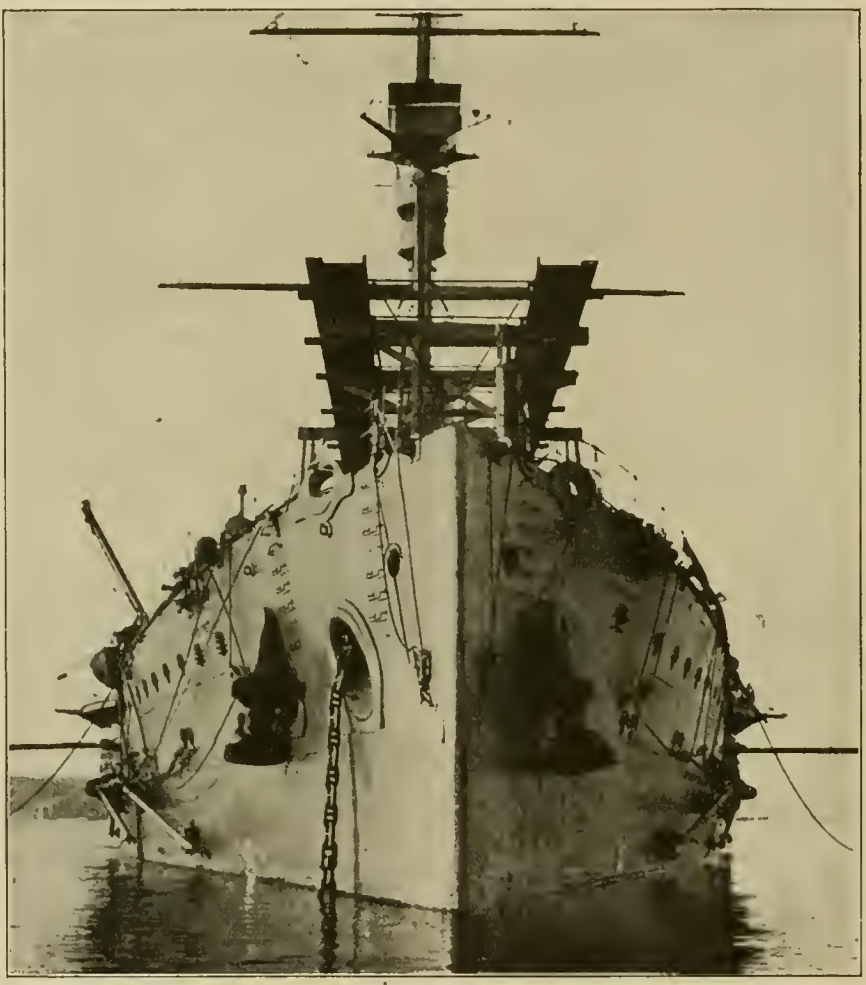
round can be fired in a little less than a minute. The gun itself costs about $50,000. The modern heavy gun is very short-lived, due to the erosive effect of the gases of smokeless powders and the terrifically high velocity of the shell. Some of these guns have a life of only one hundred rounds; but recent guns in which the velocity has been reduced can deliver as many as 250 shots before they become so inaccurate as to necessitate relining.



A 6-in. and Two 13.5-in. Guns of H. M. S. "Iron Duke"

These guns fire a frightful engine of destruction called the armor-piercing shell. Reference has been made already to the battle between armor and gun which, for the present, the gun has won. An American 14-inch gun will pierce 16 inches of the hardest armor made at a range of 10,000 yards, and European guns of similar type will do the same. All armor is now made by the Krupp process, which face-hardens a steel plate to an extraordinary degree. "Harveyized" steel, popularly supposed to be the acme of steel armor, is a thing of the past. A projectile hard enough to pierce a plate of Krupp armor—so hard, that is to say, that it will cut glass—will shatter itself to pieces like glass if fired in the form of an ordinary shell. The armor-piercing shell has a nose or cap of soft steel over its real "business

end." The effect of the impact of this soft nose is not clearly understood, but probably it is to dent and strain the plate so that the sharp point of the body of the shell, striking an instant later, is able to bore its way through, and also, and perhaps more important, to protect and



Bow of a British Dreadnought with Launching Platform for Aëroplanes

support the boring point. But the shell is not content merely with boring a hole through a ship's armor. Inside the projectile is a charge of about one hundred pounds of the most powerful explosives known, and screwed inside the base of the shell is a delayed-action fuse of the type already described, which is so timed that it will detonate the

German Battle-ship Squadron in Column

charge at the exact instant when the projectile has made its way through the armor plate into the ship, and then—there is no more ship. Such is what would undoubtedly happen were a shell to explode within a war vessel; but battles are not fought under the same conditions that prevail at gun proving-grounds. It is a fact that at the battle of Tsu-shima, between the Japanese and the Russians, the main armor belt of not a single ship on either side was pierced, even when the Japanese closed to within 3,300 yards. Hundreds of armor-piercing shells, carrying their frightful charges, of course struck, but they glanced on the rolling vessels and passed harmlessly on. It was the hurricane of smaller shot, with which the Japanese swept the decks and unarmored parts of the Russian ships, killing and demoralizing the crews, that gained the victory.

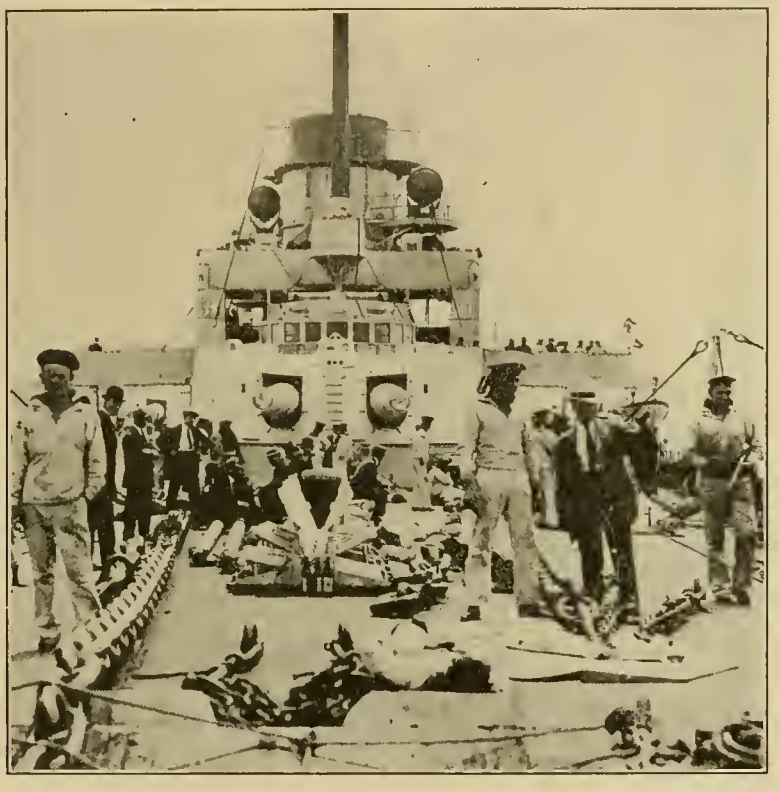
Operating a Large Gun.—Large naval guns are pointed by means of telescopic sights. A small telescope of low magnifying power is set on a part of the carriage unaffected by the recoil so that it moves in exact unison with the gun both laterally and vertically, and is so constructed that it can be depressed the exact number of degrees necessary to elevate the muzzle of the gun for the desired range. The object-glass is scored with a vertical and a horizontal hair-line. If the range has been correctly estimated, and exact allowance has been made for various disturbing factors—such as the wind, speed of vessels, etc.—the shot will strike the target if the gun is fired at the

French Battle-ships of the Pre-dreadnought Type

exact instant the image of the target crosses the hair-lines on the telescope. Firing may be done in two ways: the sight may be depressed to the proper angle and by means of the powerful and flexible elevating gear with which modern guns are equipped the telescope may be kept trained exactly upon the target until the favorable moment for shooting arrives; or the gun may be left stationary and fired when the roll of the ship sweeps the image of the target across the telescope sight, properly depressed for range. Naturally the pitching and rolling of the vessel make accurate shooting very difficult even in ordinary weather, and quite impossible in a heavy sea. Individual gun-firing has given place in modern practice to methods of firing batteries simultaneously. This method, known as "director-firing," has been highly perfected by Admiral Sir Percy Scott, and phenomenal firing records of various British ships have been reported. Exact methods of fire-control are secret in all navies; but in "director-firing" all the broadside guns of the ship can be made to follow the movements of one master gun. When the range has been found and proved by this gun, the others can be fired simultaneously. The simultaneous bursting of eight or ten 1,400-pound shells charged

with half a ton of trinitrotoluol, can be compared only to the sudden eruption of a volcano.

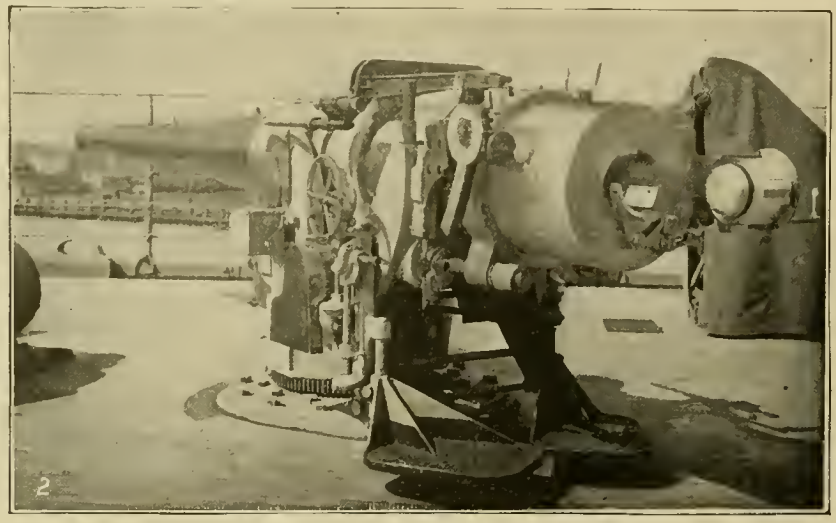
Range-finding.—Knowledge of the exact range is essential to accurate shooting. Various means of calculating the distance of an inaccessible object are in use, all depending on the simple geometrical principle that if the length of the base of a triangle and the size of



Deck of the German Battle-Cruiser "Goeben"

the two angles at the base are known, the distance of the apex from the base or the length of the other sides can readily be calculated. In land fortifications it is easy to lay off a long, permanent base for range-finding; but on a war-ship this is obviously out of the question, and a very ingenious mechanical device, known as a "range-finder," is used. This is a tube, about nine feet in length, mounted horizontally. It has mirrors at each end, which can be made to converge by adjusting-screws. One of these mirrors reflects only the top half of the object

on which it is directed, and the other reflects the lower half. When these two half-images are made to "match" precisely, the mirrors are reflecting the exact angles between the target and the two ends of the range-finder. A pointer on a scale shows the range of the target in yards. Range-finders are mounted on the tops of the military-masts. On United States ships the military masts are in the shape of a latticed column. European ships have tripod masts. Fortunately, the much-debated question of the value of the American type of mast is not likely to be decided in this war.



8-in. Gun, Showing Telescope Sight and Operating Gear

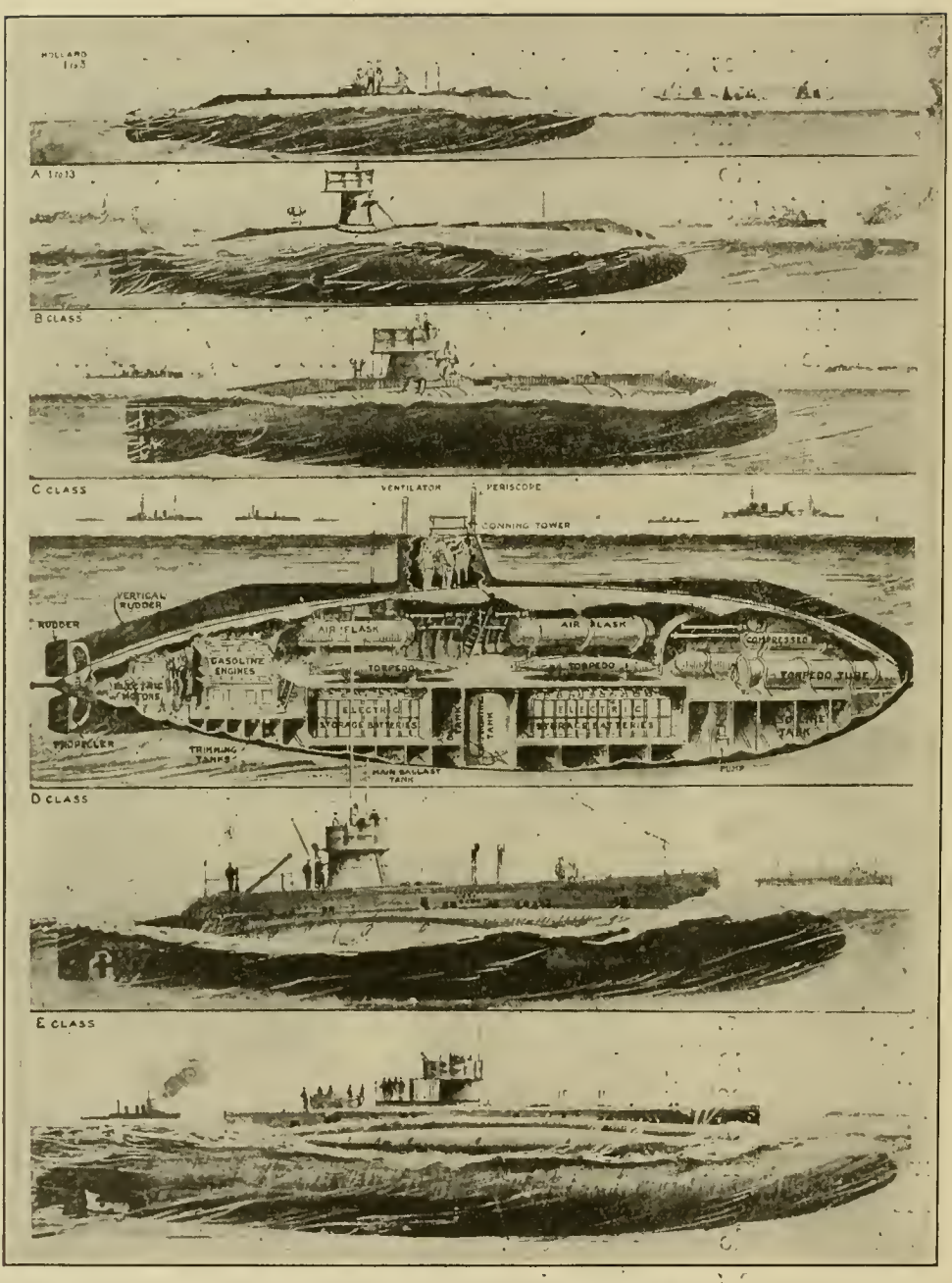
Torpedoes.—The automobile torpedo is a cigar-shaped metallic boat, equipped with engines driven by superheated compressed air, and kept true to its course by lateral and horizontal rudders. It carries in its nose a heavy charge of some high explosive (formerly wet guncotton, now trinitrotoluol), which is detonated by a firing-pin when the torpedo strikes. Torpedo boats and destroyers launch their torpedoes from swiveling deck-tubes by means of compressed air. Larger ships have tubes below the water line through which they are launched. A sort of trigger on the top of the torpedo is caught and thrown back as it leaves the tube, and this starts the engines. Thereafter, the torpedo is to all intents and purposes a self-contained submarine boat.

The devices that keep the torpedo true to its course and at a proper depth are of great ingenuity. The torpedo can be set so that it will run either along the surface of the water or at any desired depth, down to about twenty feet. The steering-gear that keeps it true in the vertical plane is based on the principle that the pressure of water increases with the depth. A spring is set to the known pressure of the water at the depth at which it is desired to run the torpedo. Should it sink below that depth, the increased weight of the water will press the spring back and thus open a valve that operates a small

Torpedo Boat Discharging a Torpedo

steering-engine. Should the torpedo rise, the pressure will decrease and the spring will force the valve in the opposite direction, thus actuating a corresponding turn of the rudder. A pendulum, free to swing in the longitudinal plane, checks sudden upward and downward movements and over-application of rudder pressure by striking the valve mechanism when brought into play.

The torpedo is kept true to a straight-ahead course by a gyroscopic device, known as the "Obry gear." The gyroscope tends strongly to revolve always in the same plane. If the torpedo should veer, it would throw the longitudinal axis of the torpedo to the right or the left of the plane of the gyroscope, thus actuating stern rudders

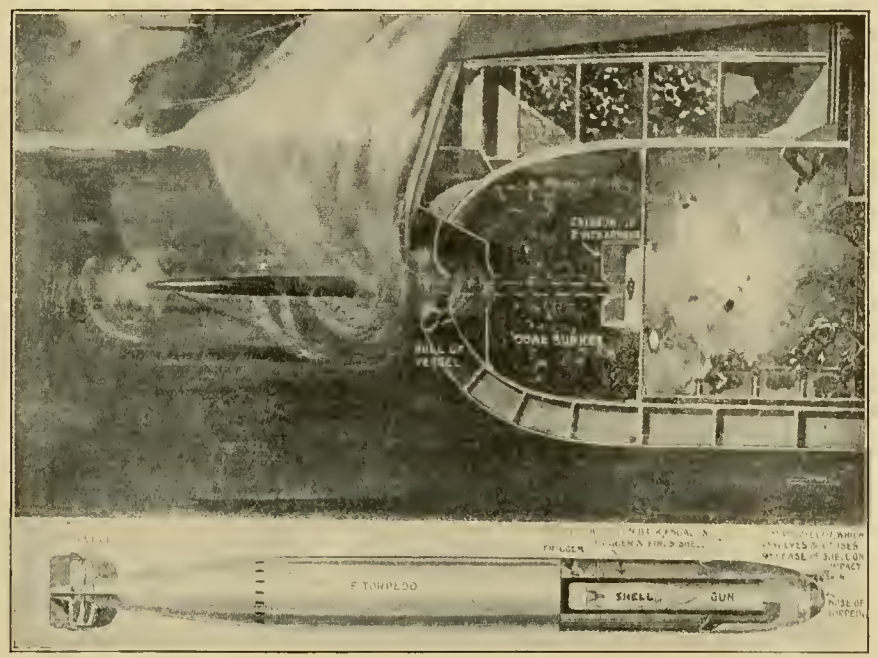


DEVELOPMENT OF THE SUBMARINE

This Plate Shows the Successive Types of Submarines Constructed for the British Navy

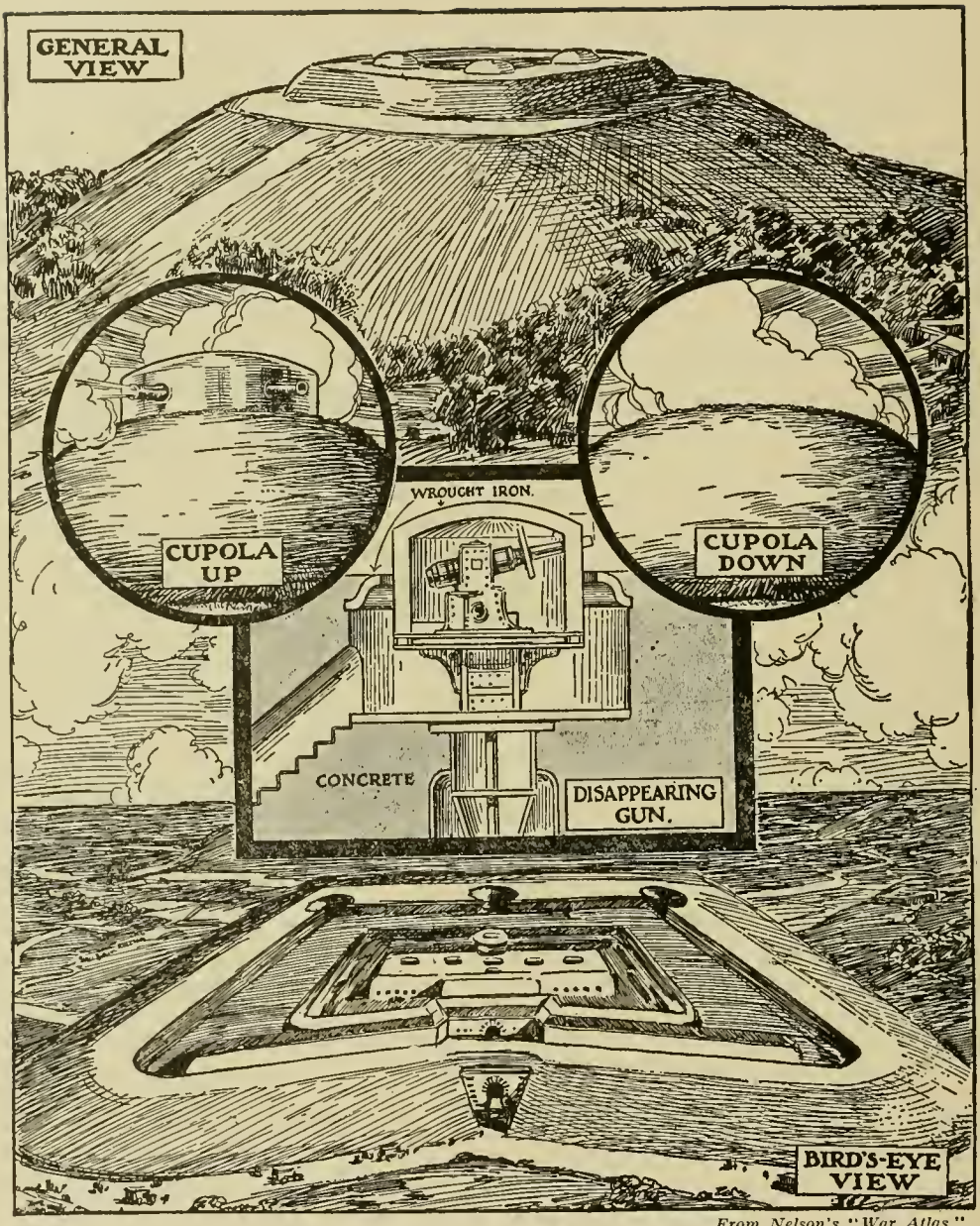
which bring it back to its proper course. In time of war, torpedoes are set to sink in case they go wide of their mark.

The most recent types of torpedoes are of long range, and are astonishingly accurate in their flight. The best known type is the English Whitehead. The German Schwartzkopf ("Blackhead") differs very slightly from the Whitehead. The typical torpedo in use



New Type of Torpedo Which Fires an Armor-piercing Shell. The Ordinary Torpedo Explodes on Impact. This Type Acts as a Gun the Muzzle of Which Is Brought Directly Against the Side of an Enemy's Ship

to-day is from 15 to 17 feet long and 18 to 21 inches in diameter. It has a range of about 8,000 yards, though England reports a new type with a 10,000-yard range. Its initial speed is about 35 knots, running down to about 26 knots when nearing the end of its radius. The cost of a torpedo is between four and five thousand dollars. The increase in range of torpedoes has had a decisive effect on tactics, as a battle obviously cannot be begun within the zone covered by the torpedoes of the two opposing lines. Battle-ships are protected from torpedoes while at anchor by steel nets hung from booms. Torpedoes are equipped with shears for the purpose of making their way through such nets.



From Nelson's "War Atlas."

A FORT AT LIÈGE

These Drawings Show the External Appearance and Internal Structure of the Cupola Forts of Liège, Designed by General Brialmont, Which, Under the Command of General Leman, Offered so Determined a Resistance to the German Invaders Until They Were Able to Bring Their Terrible 420 Millimeter Guns to Bear

CHAPTER VII

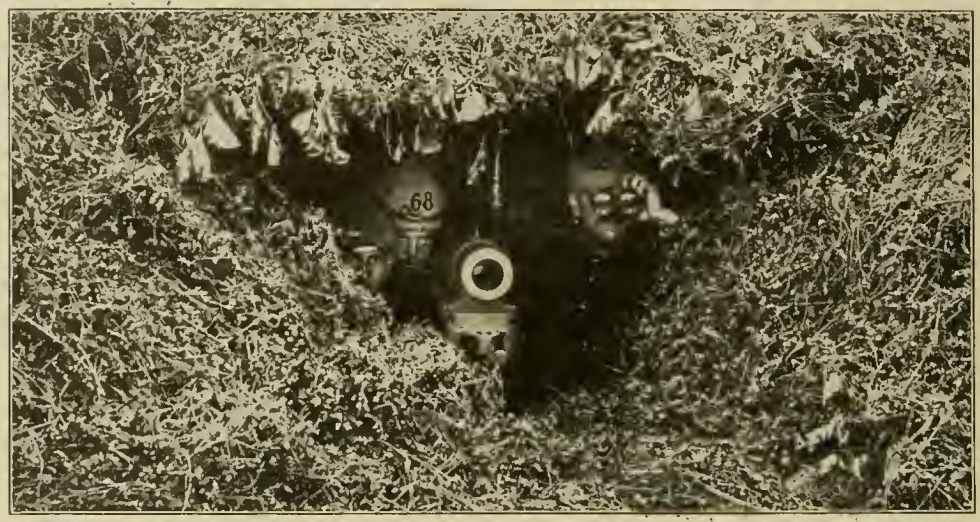
COAST-DEFENSES AND FORTIFICATIONS

Compared with battle-ships, destroyers and automobile torpedoes, fortifications are a rather prosaic subject; but as they are the very backbone of a nation's defense a few words regarding them may be interesting. In this country we have only coast-defenses to consider; but continental Europe is scored with chains of interior fortifications for the protection of frontiers, important cities, and strategic points. The modern inland fort is small and very unobtrusive. Its walls, bomb-proof shelters, redoubts, and gun emplacements are all concealed behind mounds and grassy slopes so that it merges modestly into the landscape. Its guns are masked as much as possible, and a cluster of pretty shrubs may conceal a battery of deadly mortars.

A city such as Liège, which was so valiantly defended against the Germans in this war, is protected by a girdle of forts at a distance of five or six miles from the outskirts of the town. There are usually four or five main forts, with smaller redoubts between, set at such intervals that their fire-zones intersect. In advance of the forts is a continuous line of infantry trenches, and in favorable spots are lines of barbed-wire entanglements, usually charged with electricity and other devices for obstructing the enemy, such as pits with sharp stakes at the bottom, felled trees entangled with wire, and rows of stout sharpened branches pegged into the ground. Behind the entanglements are mines, or "fougasses," that can be fired electrically from the forts. Between the forts, batteries of howitzers are placed in positions commanding the enemy's approach. A light railway, for keeping the forts provisioned and renewing supplies, running through a deep trench, connects the entire chain of forts. Until the enemy's attack becomes so fierce that it is no longer possible to keep the field, the defending troops, in the daytime, take up their positions behind these trenches and field defenses in the open country between the

forts, retiring to the shelter of the fort at night, or in foggy weather. The last stage of the siege comes when the surrounding territory is so swept by the enemy's fire that the defenders are compelled to remain in the forts.

In principle these forts are not unlike immovable battle-ships. They are usually triangular and their main protection—their side-armor, to use a naval term—lies in the thick embankment of sand and earth with which they are surrounded. This embankment—or "glacis," as its face is called—slopes gently toward the front, so that the enemy's



German Officers in Artfully Constructed Shelter

fire from the base will clear the top. Sand is very obdurate against gun-fire, and a thick bank of it will smother the most powerful shell. Behind this embankment—the whole of which is often called the "counterscarp," though that term is properly applied only to the supporting wall at the back of it—is a deep ditch, surrounding the inner citadel. Piercing this central structure from end to end is a long gallery, through which access to the fort is gained from the outside by a small tunnel-like gateway. From this central gallery, side passages lead to the soldiers' quarters, magazines and store-rooms, and to the stairways leading up to the armored cupolas protecting gun-batteries, search-lights, range-finders, and the small observation chamber in which the commanding officer takes up his position. The

inner citadel is constructed of massive concrete, and the large guns are mounted in heavily armored revolving disappearing turrets.

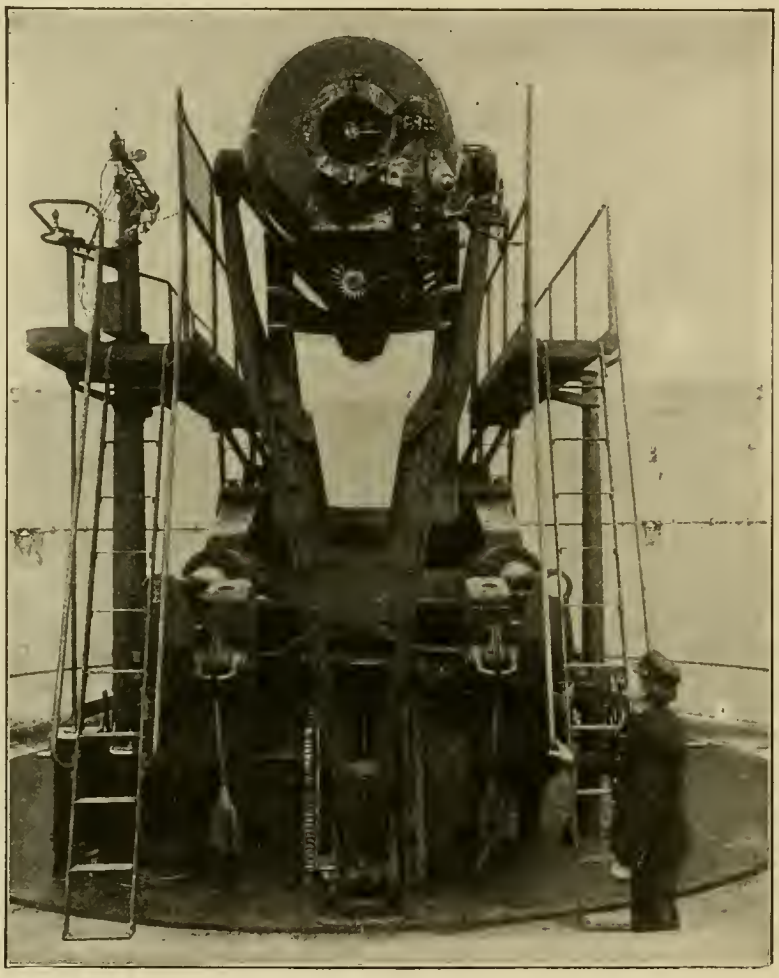
Famous military engineers have exhausted every resource of technical science in making the modern fort theoretically impregnable. They are seemingly able to resist the heaviest artillery that can be brought against them, and capable of unloosing an appalling hurricane of shot and shell. Nevertheless, the fate of Liège and Namur shows that it is possible to bring to bear upon them a fire severe enough to crush their resistance, and the new German 420 millimeter

English Artillery Bringing Up Heavy Siege-guns

(16½ in.) siege howitzers seem to have sealed the fate of the inland fort.

Coast Defenses.—The heaviest weapons are mounted on coast fortifications, though few exceed in power the guns carried by the newest dreadnoughts. The 14-inch and 12-inch guns, which differ only in the mounting from naval guns of the same size, already described, constitute the main armament of coast forts. The average 12-inch gun will strike a blow at the muzzle of about 45,000 foot-tons, while a 14-inch gun has a striking power of about 65,000 foot-tons, a foot-ton being the energy necessary to lift a ton one foot high in a second. As the largest dreadnought weighs only 30,000 tons, the terrific power of these guns may be realized. The long guns are supple-

mented by short 12-inch and smaller mortars, used for high-angle fire designed to plunge the shells downward upon the decks of the enemy's ships. The typical 12-inch mortar is a short, squat weapon, about 16



Rear View of 12-inch Disappearing Carriage. Gun in Firing Position

feet long. It will fire a shell weighing half a ton farther than a 14-inch gun will carry, at the rate of about one shot a minute. It is mounted on a tilted base, so that the muzzle can be pointed very high and throw the shells miles into the air. They are set in groups in deep pits. In Europe the large coast-defense guns are usually mounted in armored turrets, as on a battle-ship; or in steel cupolas which rise and

sink after firing into concrete cylindrical chambers. In this country, the disappearing carriage, which rears the gun in the air and sinks it back out of sight below the parapet when fired, is favored.

Range-finding.—Finding the range is a very important and interesting procedure. The principle of range-finding has already been referred to in the discussion of naval guns. On land, two well-protected observing stations are selected at each end of a base about a mile long. When an enemy's ship comes into sight, she is observed simultaneously with suitable instruments from these stations, and the respective angles which the hull makes with the base-line are telephoned to what is

German Officer Operating a Field Range-finder

called the "plotting-room" within the fort. Thirty seconds later similar observations are made, and from these two the ship's position, speed, and direction can be instantly obtained. But the exact range alone is not sufficient. Corrections must be made for wind-pressure, varying tide-levels, atmospheric pressure, variation of the powder energy due to temperature, and, of course, the ship's speed and direction. All these corrections are made within a twinkling by ingenious mechanical devices, and the exact angle at which the guns are to be elevated is telephoned to the officer in charge of the battery. Another form of range-finder has a vertical base provided by a high tower. This system has the advantage of being purely mechanical, as it is only necessary to train the telescope of the instrument upon the target and read off the range in yards on a scale below. This instrument is based on the same principle as the naval range-finder already described.

Usually both systems are used in combination, and should the enemy destroy the permanent observation stations, the naval range-finder may be pressed into service. In the last extremity, gunners would get the range by comparison with fixed objects on the land, buoys, etc., the range of which had already been ascertained and recorded.

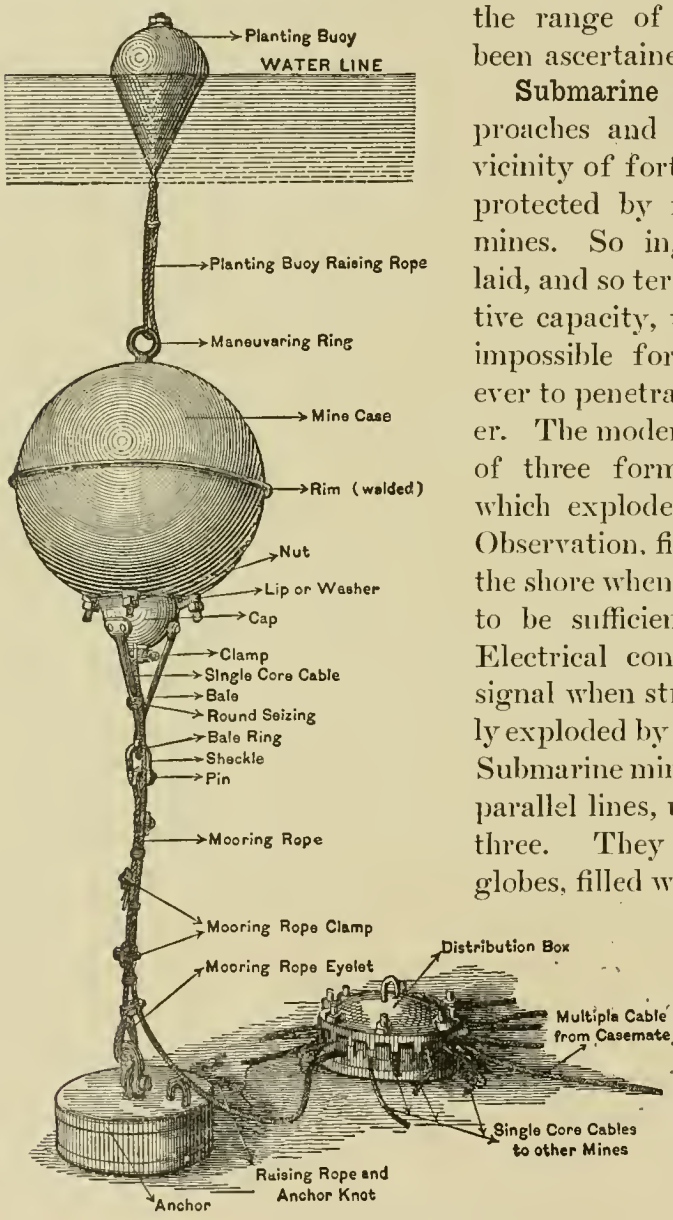


Diagram of Anchored Submarine Mine

Submarine Mines.—Harbor approaches and the channels in the vicinity of fortified naval bases are protected by fields of submarine mines. So ingeniously are these laid, and so terrible is their destructive capacity, that it seems almost impossible for an attacking fleet ever to penetrate the zone they cover. The modern submarine mine is of three forms: (1) Automatic, which explodes when struck; (2) Observation, fired electrically from the shore when the ship is supposed to be sufficiently close, and (3) Electrical contact, which gives a signal when struck, and is promptly exploded by a watchful operator. Submarine mines are laid in several parallel lines, usually in groups of three. They are hollow metal globes, filled with a sufficient quantity of explosives to destroy the largest battle-ship. They are anchored to the bottom by cables in such a way that they float about ten feet below the surface.

The electrical wires by which they are operated run to what are known as "junction-boxes," controlling a group, and thence to the shore in cables. They can be fired either singly, or in groups of three, or the whole field can be exploded at once. Or they can be set to explode on contact. In order to clear a mine field, countermining operations are resorted to, either by sending small boats into the field to sow it with new mines that explode the old ones by the shock of their own explosion, or by dragging with cables, fitted with grappling irons, drawn across the field between two boats of light draft. In order to repel countermining operations, batteries of rapid-fire guns are always placed where they can command the field. The German fleet to-day is in all probability at anchor behind coast defenses and lines of submarine mines of the general type we have just described. The magnitude of the task confronting the English fleet which desires to bring it to bay may therefore be imagined. Contact floating mines are set in the open sea in the course of the enemy's ships. These are usually launched overboard in couples from a mine-layer connected by cables, so that when a ship's bow strikes this cable it swings the two mines sharply against the vessel's side. The British cruiser "Amphion" was destroyed by one of these fiendish contrivances in the early days of the war.

British Dreadnought "Orion"

"AIR NAVIES" OF THE NATIONS

	Dirigibles	Aëroplanes
Germany	40	1,000
Austria	8	400
France	22	1,400
Great Britain	9	400
Russia	18	800
Belgium	2	100
Servia	0	60
Italy	30	119

"HEARD THE HEAVENS FILL WITH SHOUTING, AND THERE RAINED A GHASTLY DEW FROM THE NATIONS' AIRY NAVIES GRAPPLING IN THE CENTRAL BLUE."—Tennyson.

CHAPTER VIII

AIRCRAFT AND WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY IN WAR

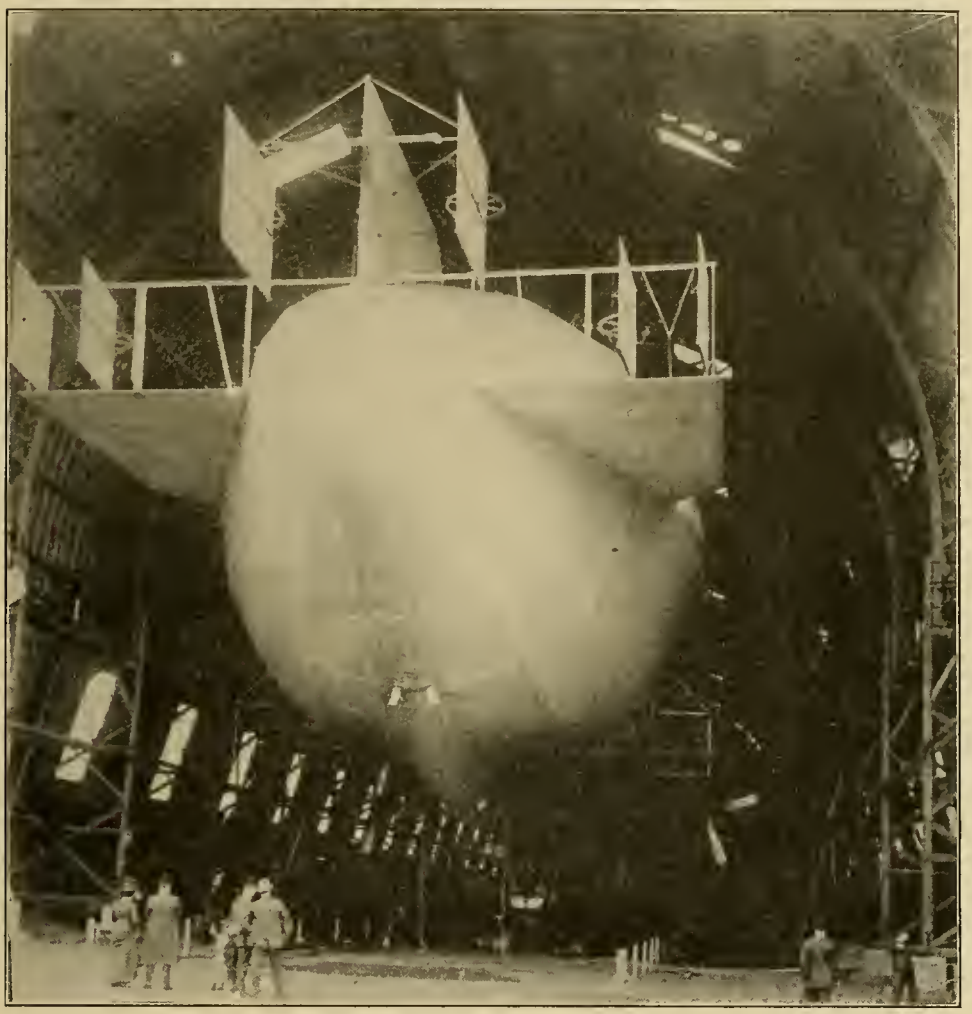
The most spectacular feature of the present war, and the one on which popular interest is most intensely centered, is the part to be played by aircraft. The development of the flying-machine from an ancient jest to a decisive factor in warfare has been phenomenally rapid, and it has passed from conquest to conquest with astounding speed. In fact, it was only in 1912 that aviation was officially constituted a new arm of the service by all the great Powers. The imagination plays readily about the flying-machine and its new and startling powers of destruction. It is easy to picture great air-ships speeding by night and dropping tons of explosives upon doomed cities, armies, fortifications, and ships at sea. Visions of flocks of aëroplanes, firing machine-guns and shooting clouds of explosive darts, may readily be conjured up. The imaginative talents of a war-correspondent, in search of material denied him by the callous censor, may delineate for us the thrilling scene of a devoted patriot hurling his aëroplane upon a huge air-ship and going to his death along with the enemy's craft and aëronauts in a blaze of flaming hydrogen. The popular fancy is running riot with pictures of this kind; but whether anything of the sort will really happen the war alone must determine. Offensive and defensive warfare keep a fairly close pace, and it is a fact that relatively fewer men are killed in modern warfare than in the days of battle-ax and cross-bow. At least, such has been the case in recent wars; and whether the present struggle will show the same tendency toward killing fewer men at greater cost remains to be seen. The killing of each Boer in the South African war cost the English $40,000; and as weapons have increased greatly in capacity and are correspondingly more wasteful, it is likely to cost much more to-day. Be that as it may, aircraft are a new and exceedingly important factor in modern warfare, and the aëroplane at least has already demonstrated its

enormous value for reconnoitering, and in consequence has profoundly modified military tactics.

Zeppelin Flying Over German Fleet in Kiel Harbor

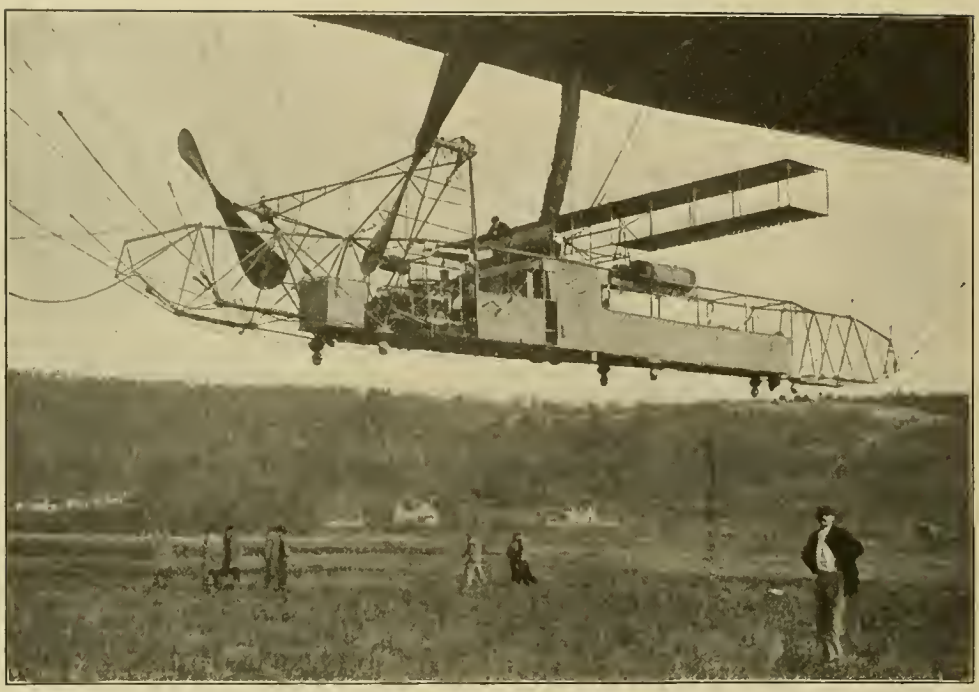
Aircraft, as is well known, are divided into two distinct classes—the aëroplane, or heavier-than-air machine; and the air-ship, or dirigible balloon, which is maintained in the air by the buoyant force of hydrogen gas.

Air-ships.—Air-ships, or dirigibles, which are essentially elongated balloons, driven by propellers, are of three classes—rigid, semi-rigid, and non-rigid. In the rigid type, the gas-containing body, or hull, is



Zeppelin at Rest in Its Huge "Air-dock"

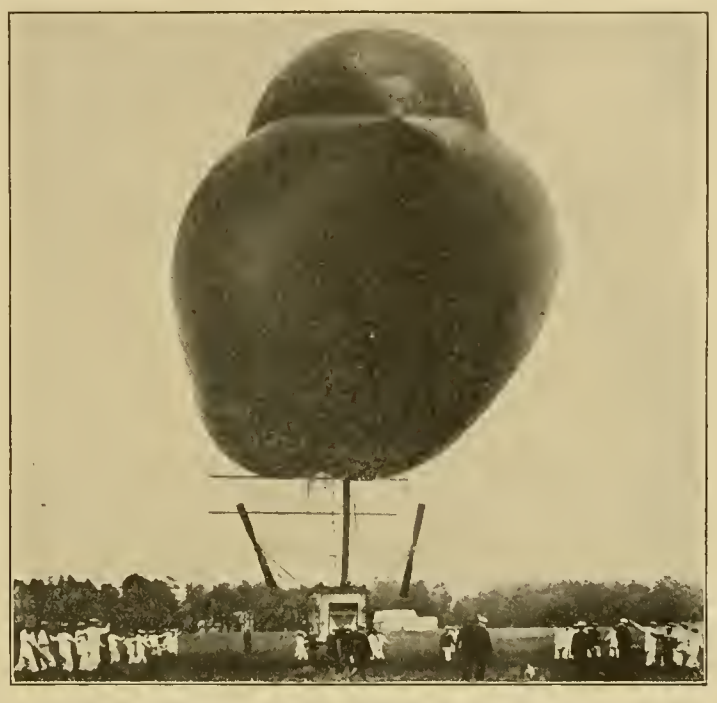
supported by a solid framework either of aluminum or of wood, containing several individual gas-bags, so that the craft will still remain in the air, even though several bags are torn. The cars containing the engines, crew-compartments, propellers, etc., are fitted to this framework close to the bottom of the hull.



Car of the Russian Dirigible "Russia"

In the semi-rigid type, the bottom of the hull is strengthened so as to form a support for the car. This type shows a tendency to disappear in favor of the non-rigid, which has a flexible body without solid supports and capable of quick deflation for transport or when threatened with sudden danger. The Zeppelin, in which the framework is of aluminum; the Schütte-Lanz, and the French Spiess, with wooden frames, are of the rigid type. The Gross and the Veeh are semi-rigid. The Parseval and the French Astra-Torres are non-rigid. The rigid type, while stronger and more efficient in many ways than the flexible type, which has nothing to support its gas-envelope but the fabric of which it is made, and internal ropes and bands from which the car is hung, has the disadvantage of a forced dependence upon huge fixed sheds for cover, and is exposed to the peril of destruction if forced to land in a high wind at a distance from its shed. A whole battalion of men is required to maneuver it into its shed. Although the early career of the Zeppelin was marked by a series of heart-breaking disasters, it has redeemed itself recently and is to-day unquestionably a

war-engine of formidable possibilities. The latest German Zeppelins have a gas capacity of 28,000 cubic meters (989,000 cubic feet), a lifting capacity of about 50 tons, and an average speed of 60 miles an hour. Their range is not known exactly, but it is probably not much short of 1,000 miles, and may be even greater.



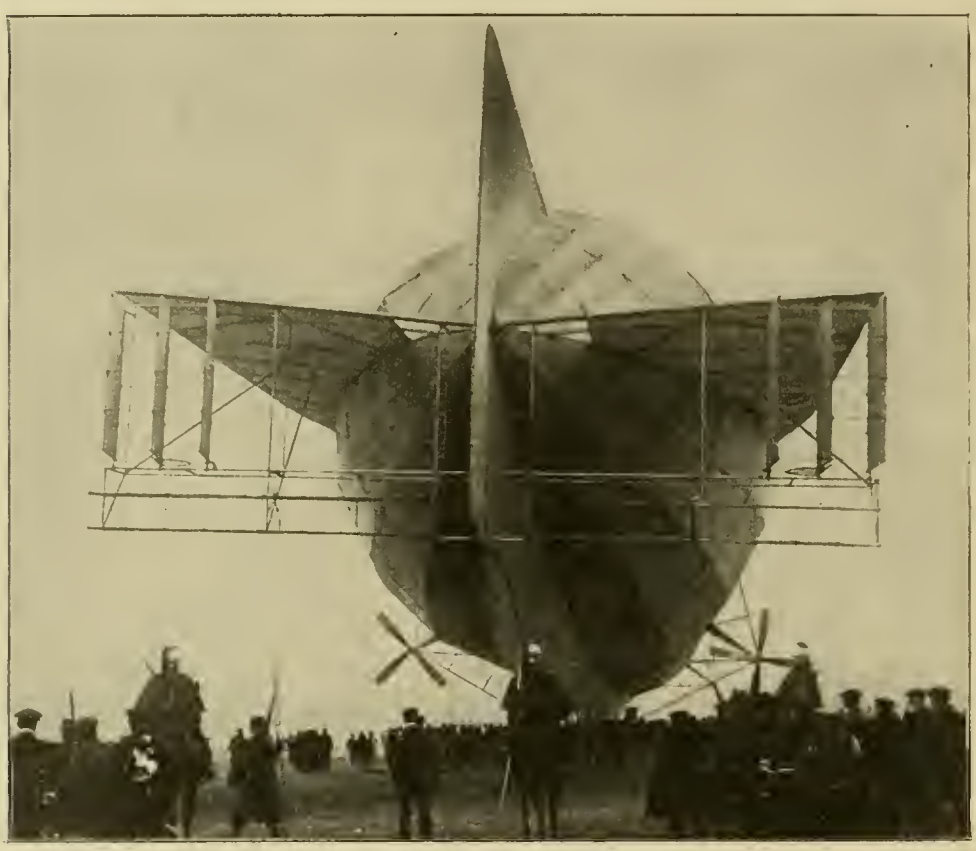
British Dirigible—Astra-Torres Type

In her new mammoth Astra-Torres, France has a dirigible, of the non-rigid type, of 23,000 cubic meters' capacity, weighing only 16 tons. It is 110 meters (360 feet) long by 19 meters (62 feet) greatest beam. Its engines are of 1,000 horse-power, and because of its lightness it is expected to prove faster than the new Zeppelins.

All military dirigibles carry searchlights, wireless outfits, and machine guns in their cars. They also have funnels leading from the car through the gas envelope, so that men may mount to the top of the body and operate machine guns mounted thereon, and thus repel attacks from above.

Aëroplanes.—Little need be said by way of description of the aëro-

plane. The public has been so fascinated by its exploits during the past few years and has followed its developments so keenly that nearly everyone is familiar with its details and its various types. We need only say here that the monoplane is the better adapted for speed, while



French Air-ship—Zeppelin Type

the biplane, on account of its superior structural strength, has greater lifting power. Recent military aëroplanes have been quite heavily armored, men, rudders, and engines being covered. They are armed with machine guns usually operated by a gunner who sits below the aviator with the gun fixed between his legs, and very fair aëroplane shooting records have been reported. The recoil of the gun does not noticeably disturb the balance of the machine. Various bomb-dropping devices have been invented; but so far nothing of that kind has

proved reliable. Bombs, of course, can be thrown overboard at random from any aircraft, and may by accident do great damage, but to plant them surely upon a given spot under war conditions is quite another matter. Anyone who has ever tried to hit a stationary target, at a known range, with a rifle, can easily imagine the difficulty of firing from an air-ship going at the rate of fifty miles an hour, either at a stationary object or at an aëroplane darting about the heavens like a great dragon-fly. On the other hand, before the war began,

The Car of a French Armored Aëroplane

very successful records were made with guns and rifles from the ground against kite-targets representing aëroplanes and drawn by automobiles; and despatches have frequently mentioned the destruction of both aëroplanes and air-ships by gun-fire. No aircraft can operate effectually at a greater altitude than 5,000 feet, and though that is nearly a mile in the air, it is well within rifle-range, not to mention howitzers, which can throw shrapnel shells, belching clouds of bullets, three times that distance. Guns specially designed for use against aircraft can be made to shoot vertically if necessary.

The air-ship has two great advantages over the aëroplane—two advantages, in fact, which make it greatly to be dreaded. It can sail at night and, in favorable weather, remain almost stationary over a chosen spot. The aëroplane, on the other hand, will fall to the ground unless its speed is fully twenty miles an hour, and an aviator cannot

steer his aëroplane without some guiding lights and cannot land safely unless he can see the ground before him. In order to ward off air-ships from fortifications, fleets, and other vital spots, it has been proposed to sow the air with aërial mines, held aloft by balloons, in a manner analogous to the sea mine-field.

In aërial tactics, the air-ship holds the same relative position that the dreadnought holds on the sea—indeed, in length, air-ships do not

Dirigible Flying Over French Artillery

fall far short of the smaller battle-ships—and, as the sea-dreadnought is protected while at anchor by a restless shoal of torpedo-destroyers, so the air-dreadnought will be accompanied by a flock of aëroplanes to protect her against the raids of the enemy's aëroplanes or to drive them away before attacking.

A very interesting development of the aëroplane is the flying boat, or hydro-aëroplane. These craft are like huge ducks, taking their flight from and landing upon the water with the utmost ease. Realizing the great value of such craft in naval operations, England has been especially active in their development and construction, and her fleets to-day are accompanied by flocks of hydro-aëroplanes. She has

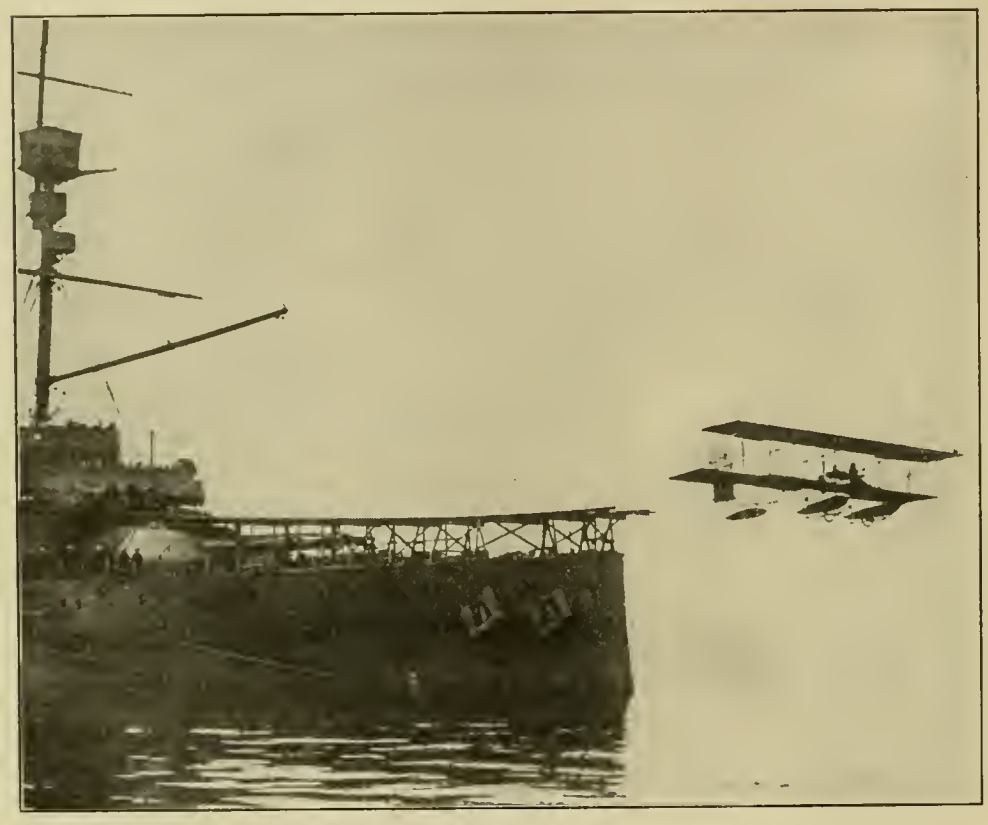
British Armored Hydro-aëroplane with Machine Gun

done very little with dirigibles, and she places her main reliance upon her sea-plane fleet. The newest form of sea-plane used in the British navy has folding wings, so that it can be tucked snugly away on the deck of a war-ship, like a big moth at rest. An aëroplane ship is now under construction which will "mother" twenty or thirty machines of this type. They can be launched from and reshipped to a battle-ship in quite rough weather in the open sea.

On land, the automobile has been pressed into service for the transport both of aëroplanes and of the tanks of compressed hydrogen used for inflating dirigibles.

Whatever may be the result of the test of aircraft as weapons of war, the airship with its great lifting capacity can certainly be put to very effective use as a means of transport of war supplies to the front, and of wounded to the rear; while the aëroplane has already demonstrated its preëminence as a means of reconnoissance over all

methods hitherto known. The latest British army maneuvers preceding this war were said to have come to a deadlock because the opposing army commanders knew the enemy's dispositions so exactly and were so promptly notified of strategical movements by aëroplane observers that neither side could strike effectively. In all previous



Aëroplane Taking Flight from British Battle-ship

wars, the only means of finding the enemy's position was by cavalry scouts thrown out in advance of the army, and frequently "reconnoissances in force," tentative attacks made for the purpose of drawing the enemy's fire and making him disclose his forces, were resorted to. Now, the eagle-eyed aëroplane observes and reports every move of the enemy, and modern warfare has become a game of chess in which all moves are made in the presence of both players, and stratagems and surprises are relegated to a minor rôle.

A very important task of the aëroplane is to observe and report by wireless upon the effect of gun-fire. Modern field guns are operated at high angles and long ranges. The aëroplane observer can direct changes in range and direction, if necessary, and can instruct the gunners how to bring their fire to bear upon an object, invisible to them, such as a body of troops behind a hill, for example. It is thought, also, that the aëroplane may be used to spy out submarines.

Aëroplane Circling H. M. S. "Conqueror"

As is well known, it is possible from a high altitude, under favorable circumstances, to see for some distance below the surface of water beneath. Advantage will be taken of this fact by sea-planes, which will hover around a fleet at sea, watching for submarines, like an eagle on the lookout for fish.

Wireless Telegraphy in War.—On January 8, 1815, was fought the battle of New Orleans, both sides being ignorant that a treaty of peace was signed fifteen days before. Just a century later, German ships on the high seas in all parts of the world, warned that war had been declared by messages flying through the air, suddenly turned about and fled for the nearest port of safety, lest they should fall a

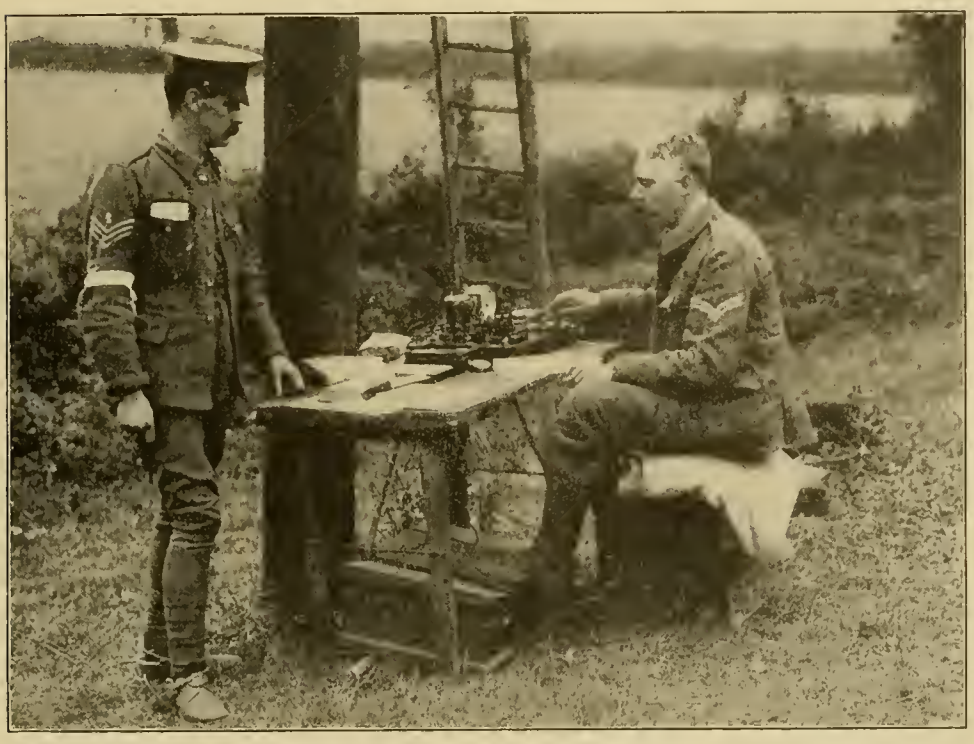
prey to lurking British cruisers. Nothing could more graphically illustrate the great strides that have been made by science in the space of one hundred years. As has happened with so many other wonderful modern inventions, wireless telegraphy and telephony have been promptly pressed into military service, so that they are now the chief means of communication between ships and distant sections of great

French Automobile Wireless Station

armies in the field. In former days, flags and semaphores were the sole means of communicating between ships. Now, though signals are still necessary and are constantly used in maneuvering, war-ships can not only communicate readily and at great distances by wireless, but each ship (in the British navy, at least) is an independent wireless telephone exchange, and officers may talk from ship to ship. Aëroplanes and dirigibles are also equipped with wireless outfits, and can keep constantly in touch with their bases. In the field, kites or small balloons, bearing the antennæ of wireless apparatus, may be sent up and connection thus be made with similar aërial stations along

the far-extended front of the modern army, or with permanent stations in the rear.

During the siege of Adrianople, a lonely little wireless instrument kept up an uninterrupted communication with Constantinople, despite the efforts of the besiegers to smother it with their more powerful



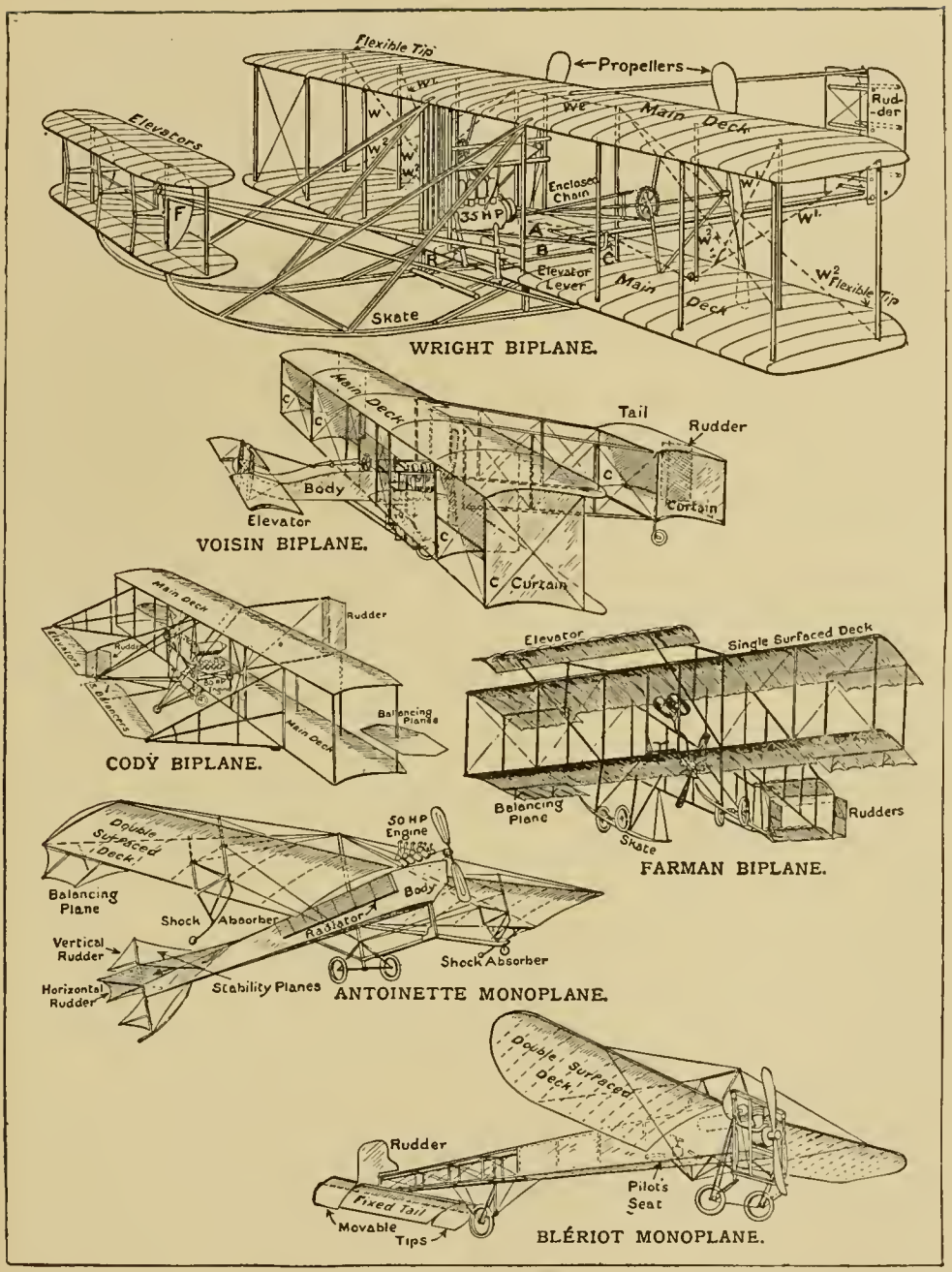
British Field Telegraph Station

currents. Secrecy in military wireless telegraphy is accomplished by "tuning" two or more instruments sympathetically. The "tune," or wave-length, can be changed easily at will, and the sending operator, having sent a few words at one wave-length, sends a code signal that means he is going to alter his machine to a new tune. The receiving operator, knowing the code, immediately changes his instrument to correspond, and the interchange continues without interruption. In this way, an enemy who happened to "cut in" would be baffled. It is this variety of wave-length that makes possible the uninterrupted communication of the great European land wireless stations, although

Battery of German Field Kitchens

the operating spheres of English, French, German, and Russian systems overlap in a veritable aërial tangle.

Such are the implements with which modern war is waged. In ingenuity they are fiendish; in capacity for destruction, appalling. The mind reels in contemplating their awful havoc-wreaking possibilities. Whether their performances in actual service will equal their mechanical potentialities, or whether many of them prove to be more potent in their moral effect than in their actual execution, the operations of the next few months will tell.



From Nelson's "War Atlas."

AËROPLANES

This Diagram Shows the Structure of the Leading Types of Military Aëroplanes

NAPOLEON AT FRIEDLAND

After His Victory Over the Russians and Prussians at Friedland, the Last Great Disturber of the World's Peace Was at the Zenith of His Power

CHAPTER IX

EUROPEAN WARS SINCE 1815

When the first Napoleon had overrun Europe, left the bones of his devoted soldiers on every field, overturned nearly every government, and set his relatives on thrones, the nations that had been "made pale by his cannons' rattle" realized that a combined effort to crush his power was necessary to their very existence. The final result was Waterloo, with St. Helena in the distance. All Europe then needed a breathing-spell; but, for all its severe lessons, that was by no means the end of European wars, for the hills and plains and rivers of the crowded continent were unchanged, and human nature remained the same. After six years the guns began to boom again, and the European historian must count twelve considerable wars since that time—an average of one in less than eight years. The reader will probably be interested in the following brief narratives of those contests, and thus will be able the better to understand the greater one that is now in progress.

The Greek War for Independence (1821-'30).—In March, 1821, the Greeks, weary of the oppressive rule of Turkey, which had lasted, with brief intervals under Venetian rule, from 1460, became filled with a new and ardent desire for national independence and broke out in revolt against the Ottoman Empire at Jassy, Moldavia. The Turks tried to crush the insurrectionists in their usual barbarous way, by summary executions, murders, and massacres, one of the worst of which occurred in Chios (Scio), an island in the Ægean Sea, where a population of about 100,000 was reduced to 2,000. But even these savage measures could not suppress the rising tide of Greek nationalism, and in January, 1822, a constitution for a new Greece was drawn up at Epidaurus by the national assembly.

The noble patriotism and heroic fighting of the long-suffering Greeks, and the frightful massacres committed by their Turkish oppressors, awakened the sympathy and indignation of the civilized

The charge of the Scots Greys at Waterloo in 1815

world, and men of other countries offered their services to Greece in her righteous revolt. The most celebrated man among these alien allies was Lord Byron, the English poet, who joined the Greek army in 1824 but died within the year.

Early in 1825, the Turkish sultan, in a determined effort to deal a crushing blow to the Greek rebellion, called to his aid Ibrahim Pasha, Viceroy of Egypt, who, with an army of twenty thousand Egyptians, landed on the peninsula of the Morea (the Peloponnesus, as it was known in the ancient world). For a time the struggle of Greece for freedom seemed hopeless, but European interest in her plight increased rather than diminished, and at last England, France, and Russia determined to intervene. A protocol was drawn up in London, July 6, 1827, demanding an armistice, and at the same time these Powers augmented their own forces in the Mediterranean Sea. Turkey would not listen to the warnings or demands of the three Powers, however, but, relying on the aid of Ibrahim Pasha and his troops, contin-

The regiment fought in Belgium again in 1914

ned her oppression of the Grecks until the international dispute came to a climax in the decisive naval battle of Navarino (October 20, 1827), in which the allied forces annihilated the combined fleet of Turkish and Egyptian vessels. In the following year (1828-'29) Russia attacked Turkey with land forces and advanced victoriously as far as Adrianople, where peace was finally declared after Turkey had yielded to the demands of the allied Powers; and by another protocol, issued in London in 1830, Greece was proclaimed an independent kingdom, her first monarch under the new order of things being Otho, the second son of Louis I of Bavaria.

The Revolution of July (1830).—After the death of Louis XVIII (1824) his brother, Charles X, ascended the throne of France. These kings were brothers of Louis XVI, executed in the French Revolution of 1792-'93. Louis XVIII accomplished much good for his realm, and under his reign the country enjoyed a high degree of prosperity. But his successor did not follow his brother's moderate

THE FIELD OF WATERLOO

Belgian Officers on the Site of the Most Famous Conflict in History

and liberal policy. He called Prince Polignac to power as the head of an extreme royalist ministry.

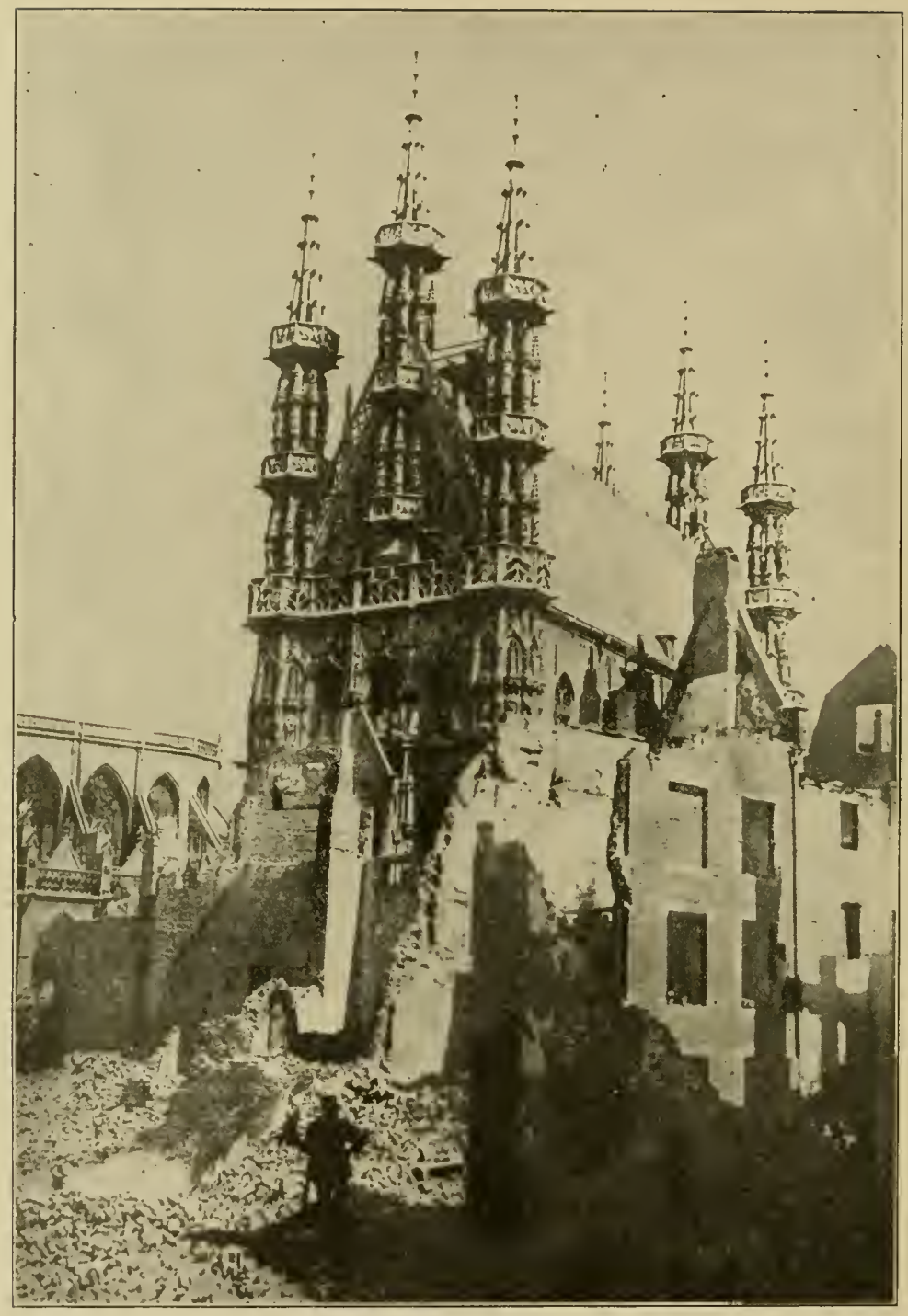
At a meeting of the Chamber of Deputies in 1830 an assurance was given to the French people that the constitutional charter, which granted public liberties, would be respected. But, to divert the public mind from a demand for greater political liberty, Polignac made an appeal to the French love of military glory by organizing an expedition to northern Africa to suppress the Algerian pirates along the coast. The army took possession of the city of Algiers and then of the whole of Algeria, and put an end to piracy in the neighboring waters.

In France certain ordinances were passed somewhat later (July 25, 1830) which were intended to muzzle the liberty of the press; meetings of the Chamber of Deputies were dissolved, and a new mode of election was established, all former elections being declared illegal.

The success of the army in Algiers did not dazzle the French so much as to offset these offenses against their comparatively new-found rights and liberties, and the people rose in protest, which soon increased to riot and open revolt. The revolution lasted only three days (July 27-29), but while it raged the palace of the Tuileries was again invaded, as in the great Revolution, and Charles X was driven out of France. The crown was immediately offered to Louis Philippe, a great-grandnephew of Louis XIV, and was accepted, which act closed the brief but stormy Revolution of July.

The Revolutionary Movements of 1848.—A hundred years ago, throughout Central Europe, began a political movement which, gathering strength in the middle of the nineteenth century, brought about a profound change in systems of government. Up to that time the spirit of absolutism had prevailed. Emperors and kings apparently waged wars to please themselves, and when a peace was concluded the people over whom they ruled found themselves little better off than before. Constitutional government was still a dream. Free speech and a free press were unknown. Feudalism was still in force, and apparently there was no relief from tyranny and excessive taxation.

One of the chief causes in maintaining these conditions was the lack of national solidarity. The voluntary union of men speaking the same language, animated by the same ideals, and bound by ties of blood, had not been accomplished. The destinies of races were at the



THE RUINS OF LOUVAIN

The Hotel de Ville Is Standing Intact Among the Ruins of the Beautiful Cathedral of St. Pierre

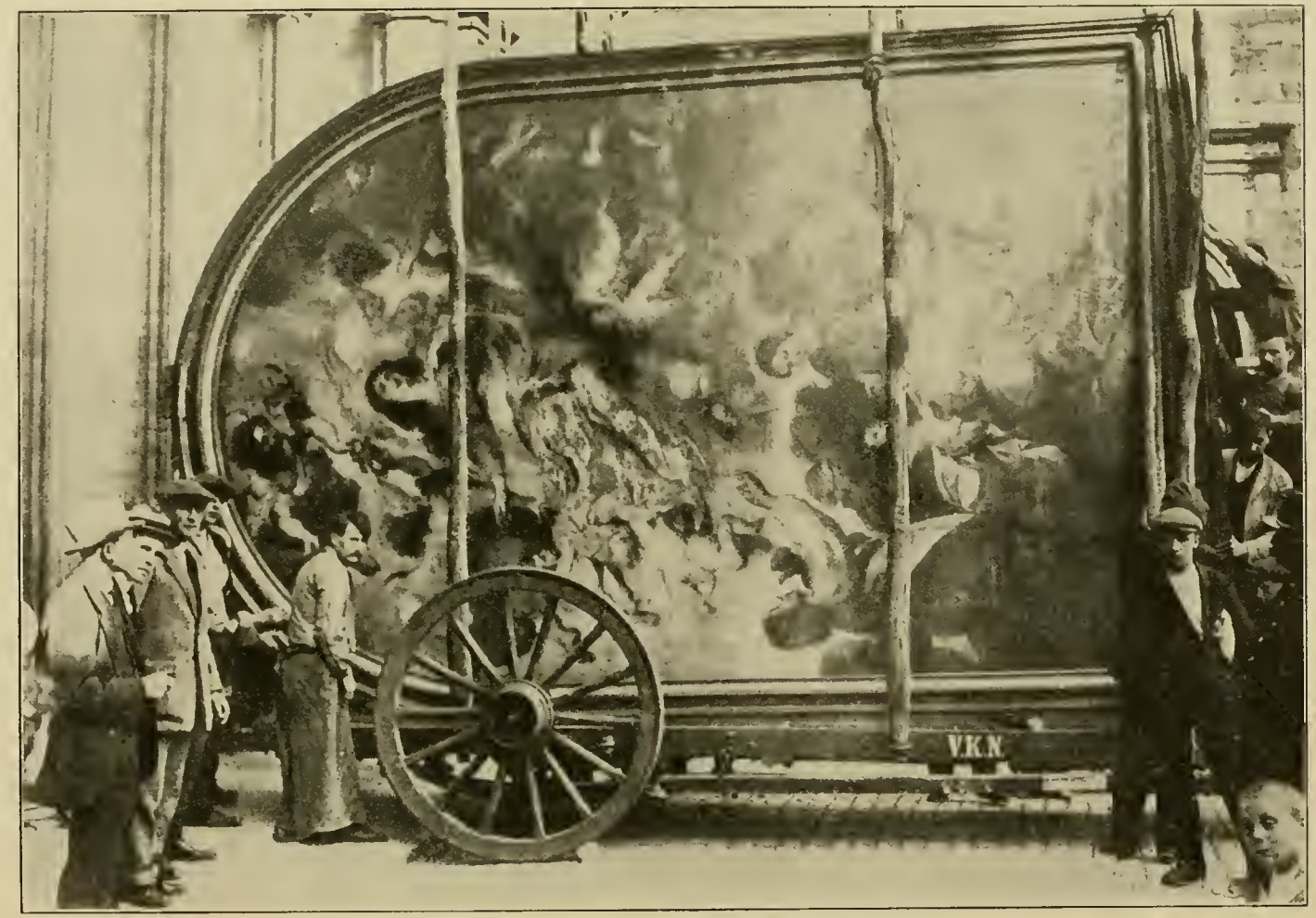
mercy of conquerors and statesmen, and countries were partitioned, re-united and again partitioned, without reference to the laws of natural development or to the consent of the governed. The Austrian rulers in the early nineteenth century, preceding the ascension of Francis Joseph, were men of small capacity, yet one statesman, Prince Metternich—with the prestige of the empire to support him—was able to impose his will upon Central Europe, and to smother the expression of all liberal ideas.

The popular uprising that resulted, among other things, in the fall of Metternich, his flight and exile, was twofold. Its aim was, in the first place, to reform the intolerable abuses of the State, local and general, and in the second place, so to arouse the spirit of freedom that men united by common ties of race and language would rally under the same banner.

Thus it came about that, though much blood was shed to little immediate purpose, and though the revolutions of these years ended in failure, Europe witnessed the birth of nationalism. In Italy, Mazzini and Garibaldi, in Hungary, Kossuth and Francis Deak, in Germany, Heeker and Robert Blum, collaborated with speech and sword to shatter the traditions of despotism and prepare the way for freedom and unity.

This is the significance of the revolutionary movements in Italy, Austria, Germany, and to a less degree in France, in 1848-'49. From the first outbreak of the people at Messina, in September, 1847, and the speech of Kossuth at Presburg, in the following March, till the late summer of 1849, with despotism in the saddle once more, is a period embodying an idea that has left its mark on European civilization. Finally, it bears a very special relation to the terrible war of 1914. For the triumph of the national principle which made possible a united Italy and a unified Germany has at the same time intensified the feeling of race, and put patriotism on close terms with contempt and hatred for neighbors who speak another language. In the European war now raging it seems that national jealousies and national prejudices and ambitions weigh heavy in the balance against the good results we associate with the triumph of the national principle.

After the fall of Napoleon the representatives of the great



IN FEAR OF THE FATE OF LOUVAIN AND RHEIMS

Removing Rubens's masterpiece, "The Assumption of the Virgin," from the Cathedral at Antwerp to a subterranean place of safety from German shells and bombs

Powers assembled at Vienna to reconstruct the map of Europe and divide the spoils of war. This assemblage was called a congress, yet really it was not a parliament at all. Its proceedings were vested in a committee that marked out boundaries and apportioned kingdoms by the rule of might. The dominating nations took as much as they could get without actually coming to blows, and the little States of Europe were obliged to be content with what was given them. As Prince Metternich was the controlling spirit of the congress, the Hapsburg dominions did not suffer, and Italy once more came under Austria's control. But, although absolutism in Europe had regained its old ascendancy, the leaven of the first French Revolution was at work. During the thirty years of peace that followed the Napoleonic wars, liberal ideas were generated in the minds of Magyar and Slav, Teuton and Italian, and there came a time when the demand for reform began to find expression in acts. In Italy especially were the reformers at work, and the flame of insurrection had already been kindled in some of the Italian States. From that time it became a contest between freedom and repression, between the modernism of Mazzini and the stifling system of Metternich. The world was to witness the strange spectacle of Italy's spiritual liberator, proscribed by his native land, controlling from his cheap lodgings in London the forces that were to overthrow the autocrat of Austria.

The immediate impulse to the general revolution came from France—in other words, from Paris. The French people, by the Revolution of July, had driven out King Charles, only to set up Louis-Philippe, Duke of Orleans, with the old title of King of the French. With him came a freer constitution; but he did not prove to be a popular ruler, and neither he nor his chief minister, Guizot, who succeeded Thiers, understood the temper of the people or the economic needs of the times. The crisis came when a great public banquet was arranged by the Opposition to proclaim the nature of its demands. The king fortunately forbade the people to assemble in this manner, and so there was no banquet. Instead, there were barricades, and from behind these barricades an aroused republicanism suddenly sprang to arms. This was on February 21-22, 1848. Two days later the "Citizen King," rudely awakened from his false sense of security by this unexpected demonstration of the popular will,

stepped down from his throne and made way for the Second Republic.

It was as if the Goddess of Liberty, incarnate in France, had tossed her cap in air for all Central Europe to see. Metternich could not gather in his fist the wind of destiny, and so the tempest broke.

In Hungary, Louis Kossuth, the uncompromising, let loose his thunderbolts of oratory. His speech in the Diet, March 3, 1848, not only inflamed his passionate compatriots with revolutionary ardor, but aroused Vienna as well. Students and laborers clashed with soldiers, and blood was shed. Metternich, perceiving that his career was at an end, fled from the flames of his burning residence, and sought safety in England. Two weeks later the Hungarian Diet enacted the March laws that made Hungary independent, creating a ministry through which the Austrian monarch must exercise his royal authority. Hungary was to have her own army and her own flag. With Budapest, not Presburg, as the seat of government, she was to enjoy, with a modern constitution, a free press, religious liberty, and trial by jury. The people, not the nobility, were to elect the Diet. All this in a country whose 13,000,000 population embraced 11,000,000 serfs.

Reformers in Vienna and the Austrian provinces seized their opportunity to exact from the Government not only local reforms but a contribution for the empire as well. These demands were granted, as in Hungary, because the Austrian army was in Italy, and the House of Hapsburg could only bide its time.

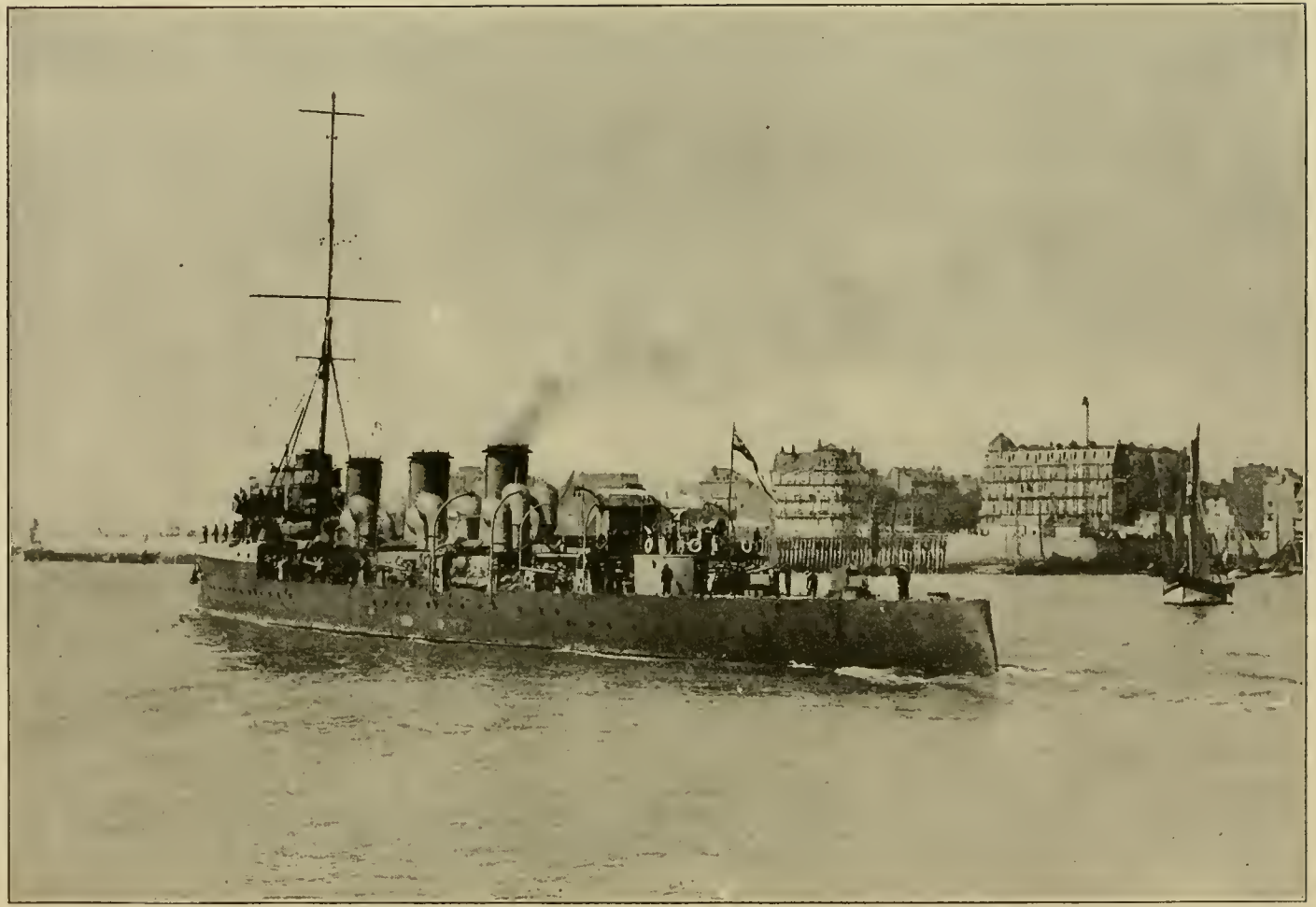
The same policy of craft and concession marked the emperor's attitude toward the Czechs. Bohemia entertained national aspirations. While greatly in the majority, the Czechs feared the supremacy of the smaller but richer German population; therefore they sought to revive their own language, and, along with sweeping local reforms, to obtain the privilege of national self-government.

Germany, too, soon fell into line. The loosely-knit Confederation of German States, formed by the Congress of Vienna, had been a prop in the reactionary system devised and maintained by Metternich, but now the time seemed ripe not merely for reforms but for realizing the Liberals' dream of unity. The Prussian King did not, for the time, dispel that dream. The Parisian custom of erecting barricades in certain emergencies was now adopted by the people of Berlin, and scenes of violence marked the week of March 15. So the

king made certain provinces by proclamation; the Liberals, by way of a beginning, assembled soon afterward at Heidelberg, to provide for a popular election of a constitutional assembly, and the parliament thus elected, with the reluctant consent of Diet and petty princes, met at Frankfort on May 18. Its deliberations were attended with great difficulties and dangers, but a better understanding of what happened will be reached if we observe the state of things in Italy.

The Italians, it must be borne in mind, were not a nation at all, politically speaking, and had not been since the time of the Romans. Actually, they were bound together by such ties of race, tradition, sentiment, and language as had no counterpart in the artificial kingdoms of the north, with their Babel of tongues and their appalling confusion of populations. It followed that in Italy there was little feeling of loyalty to the Hapsburgs—over-lords and cruel oppressors, with no natural right to their territory—and that the revolutionary movement in the peninsula was first of all aimed at their expulsion. Besides helping to keep the petty princes on their precious thrones, Austria was the owner of Lombardy and Venetia, with their principal cities of Milan and Venice. To the west was Piedmont, an independent State ruled by Charles Albert, King of Sardinia. Italy had long been a network of secret societies plotting Austria's ruin, but Mazzini founded in Young Italy an organization of greater import. Poetry, oratory, statesmanship became allies in a common movement. In 1846 Pius IX was elected pope, and his sympathy with measures of reform excited the highest expectations. The way seemed to be prepared.

On March 18, 1848, Milan struck the first blow. The people rose against Radetzky, the savage and redoubtable general in command of Austria's army, and after five days of furious fighting they drove the troops from the city. The Austrians, in this encounter, committed incredible cruelties, spitting mere children on the points of their bayonets and torturing prisoners who fell into their hands. In Venice a republic was proclaimed. Charles Albert, who had shown some infirmity of purpose, acted at last, and marched at the head of his army into Lombardy. Tuscany, Naples, and the papacy rallied, for the time, to his aid. But Radetzky, veteran of many bloody campaigns, commanded an army superior in organization and discipline. Forced



LORD KITCHENER'S WAR YACHT

The British War Minister Makes Flying Visits to the Continent to Confer with the French Authorities and the English Commander-in-Chief. The Destroyer "Sentinel," with Lord Kitchener Aboard, Is Shown in the Picture Entering Le Havre on September 3rd

out of Milan, he made his way to the Quadrilateral of Venetia. Skilled in maneuver, he outgeneraled Charles Albert, and at the battle of Custozza, July 25, the patriots of Piedmont were so badly defeated that Austria recovered Lombardy.

Meanwhile another victory had been won by Austria nearer home. In the revolution of 1848 the empire was able to uphold its supremacy less by feats of arms than by the diplomatic cunning that pitted one of the subject races against another. This is what happened in Bohemia. The Czechs were so determined to nationalize their country at the expense of the Germans, and the Germans so vigorously opposed the attempt, that the two races came to blows at Prague, June 12. Windischgrätz, the Austrian commander, saw his opportunity; Prague was promptly bombarded into subjection, and the aspirations of Bohemia were at an end.

The Austrian Government then proceeded to play fast and loose with Hungary, where the Serbs, Croatians, and Rumanians were demanding equal privileges with the Magyars, while the proud followers of Kossuth were opposed to anything short of complete Magyar domination. The Croats especially rebelled against the proposal that the Magyar language should become the official speech of the country. So the Vienna Government set up Gellachich, a Croatian army officer who hated the Magyars, as Governor of Croatia. Gellachich did what was probably expected of him by encouraging the antagonism of Croat and Magyar, and Hungary called upon Austria to keep her pledge and recall the governor. But Austria's policy was rooted in insincerity. Too weak to repudiate openly the sanction of the March laws, the emperor permitted a civil war of Croatian and Serb against Magyar. Then, growing bolder, on October 3, he dissolved the Hungarian Diet. Thereupon Vienna itself rose against him, and he was compelled to seek safety in Olmütz, only to return when the army, in command of Windischgrätz, laid siege to Vienna, and, after five days of fighting, forced an entrance to the capital, October 31, 1848.

But force of arms had not made legal the abrogation of the March laws, so Metternich's worthy successors in diplomacy resorted to a ruse. The Emperor Ferdinand was called upon to abdicate in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph I. His accession, December 2, 1848, enabled the Government, headed by Schwarzenberg, to repudiate the

acts of Ferdinand, and this led, in 1849, to Hungary's open revolt. The Magyars now found themselves arrayed not only against the power of Austria, but against Serb and Rumanian, Croat and Slavonian. But this did not daunt them. Fired by the zeal of Kossuth, and aroused to reekless courage by his impetuous followers, the Diet, on April 14, 1849, proclaimed the independenee of Hungary.

It seemed as if the ominous word, "republic," might actually be uttered. But despotism, with an earthquake rumbling in its ears, is not without resources. The youthful Franeis Joseph saw a light in the East. He called upon the Emperor of Russia for aid, and Nicholas I, sympathizing with the predieament of a neighboring monarch, did not turn a deaf ear. Then Magyar appealed in vain to Slav, and even to the Turk.

Such are the ironies of history, especially when the perspeetive ranges back from the battle-fields of 1914. The rest is soon told. Russians and Rumanians on the east, Austrians on the west, Serbs, Croatians, and Slavonians on the south, all eombined to erush the forees of Hungary. At Világos, August 13, 1849, the Hungarian general, Görgei, surrendered. Kossuth took refuge with the Turks, who treated him with kindness. The Austrians, with less consideration, hanged many of the friends he had left behind, and Franeis Joseph and Nicholas exehanged felieitations. The peace of Europe had been preserved, and the last state of Hungary was worse than the first.

Meanwhile the German struggle for unity was making little headway, for the parliament at Frankfort faeed grave perplexities. The problem was to replace the lax eonfederation by a kingdom with one ruler and a common parliament, and to do this without offense to Austria or Prussia. It was finally agreed to include in the Confederation only the German provinces of Austria, and to erect a hereditary empire with the King of Prussia as ruler. But Austria declined the suggestion to part with these provinces or to be ousted from the German Confederation; and Frederick William of Prussia, partly because the offer came from a mere parliament, and partly because of Austria's attitude, would not accept the erown. So the Parliament of Frankfort, early in 1849, after a year of deliberating, came to nothing; and German unity awaited a stronger hand.

About this time the greater struggle of Italy was drawing to its tragic close. Austria and Piedmont had made a temporary truce, and Lombardy was beneath the heel of military oppression. The Italians, divided by rivalries, could no longer take the field with Charles Albert, who nevertheless felt himself pledged to another campaign. This was brief and decisive. Radetzky won the day at the battle of Novara, March 23, 1849, and the king, denied the death he sought at the enemy's hands, resigned his throne to his son, Victor Emmanuel II. He had risked all in the cause of liberty, and the sacrifice had not been in vain. The constitution he gave Piedmont is to-day the constitution of Italy, and his memory as that of a martyr is kept green.

Absolutism still had a few tasks to discharge, and it discharged them thoroughly. In Tuscany and Florence the little Republics that had been set up were promptly demolished. The Roman Republic remained, for Pius IX had fled to Naples, and Mazzini ruled there as a triumvir. It will be recalled that republican France contributed the shock that has galvanized Central Europe into the semblance of national life. Still a republic, it now became her rôle to rescue the pope, who was certainly no tyrant, and to restore him to Rome, at whatever inconvenience to the occupants of his dominions. So the French laid siege to the city, and as they were much stronger than the Romans, it took them only about three weeks to do what Louis Bonaparte had sent them to do. This was on June 30, 1849. Two months later the Austrians entered Venice.

The Crimean War of 1854-'55.—After Waterloo, the Powers waged no great war for thirty-nine years. As we have seen, the flames kindled by the mid-century revolutionists were speedily extinguished, and what had promised to be a conflagration proved to be little more than signal fires for posterity. The peace of Europe had been threatened by men ready to die for a just cause; and now, in 1854, that peace was lightly shattered, and without abiding results.

Nicholas I of Russia had been casting covetous eyes on Turkey, looking for an opportunity to gain, through the Bosphorus, his proper and much needed access to the sea. England, he thought, might aid him. So he made overtures to that Government, in the course of which he referred to the sultan as "the sick man of Europe," whose estates might profitably be divided without further delay.

Roll Call After a Crimean Battle

But Queen Victoria's advisers looked coldly upon the plan, for, with a good outlet to the highway of nations, Russia's commerce would be a strong rival to her own. Nicholas then hit upon another plan, which he hoped to carry out on his own account. In the Turkish domains were some millions of Greek Catholics, whose spiritual head was the czar. Russia, France, and Turkey had quarreled over the question of protecting pilgrims in the Holy Land, and though the dispute was settled, Russia suddenly asserted a right of guardianship over all Greek Christians in the sultan's empire. As this would open the way to Russia's obvious ambition, Turkey, acting on the advice of France and England, refused to comply with the czar's demand. Russia immediately invaded the Turkish provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia.

Russia, with her enormous army and immense prestige, had counted on an easy conquest. Despotism had built up an empire

The English Soldiers Suffered Severely in the Crimea

whose forces seemed invincible; but actually, it was honeycombed with official corruption and incompetence, and doomed to defeat. The czar had fastened a duel upon a "sick man," only to find himself opposed to England, France, and little Sardinia, who all took a hand as Turkey's allies: England, from mixed motives, of which the uppermost was perhaps the ever-abiding fear for India; Napoleon III for reasons personal and inherited; Sardinia, because Cavour coveted admission to the councils of the Powers.

War upon Russia was declared by the allies, March 27, 1854, and after a brief campaign the Russians were driven north across the Danube and forced to retire from the two Turkish provinces. Russia was now ready to cry quits; but France and England were eager to cripple her, and so preclude the peril of future pretensions.

Thus, in September, 1854, the Crimean war began on a great scale. It will always be memorable for the battles along the river

BELGIAN SOLDIERS IN THE TRENCHES

This Photograph, Taken Near Malines, Shows How Carefully Riflemen Protect Themselves Against the Enemy's Fire

Alma—Balaclava (October 25) and Inkerman (November 5)—where the English Royal Guards held at bay a body of Russians outnumbering them five to one. But eclipsing these in courage was the long and terrible siege of Sebastopol, Russia's chief naval station on the Crimean peninsula of the Black Sea. There the allies sought to crush her sea power, and began an investment that lasted eleven months. It was a murderous siege—one of the most horrible in modern military annals—250,000 Russians lost their lives. In the cruel winter the campaign by land had been hardly less dreadful. Bad food and bitter weather and mismanagement played havoc with both armies. Mankind has seldom paid such tithes for military glory.

Sebastopol fell on September 8, 1855. But for the genius of Russia's engineer with a German name—Todleben—the fortress might have fallen sooner. The war did not last much longer, but the Treaty of Paris was not signed until March 30, 1856.

Russia emerged from this useless war broken and humiliated. By the terms of the treaty, she renounced all claims affecting the Turkish provinces, and was even obliged to fall back from the Danube by yielding to Moldavia a protecting wedge of territory. The Black Sea was declared neutral. It was to be stripped of all fortifications, opened to the world's commerce, and closed to all battle-ships. Turkey, for the first time, was admitted to the concert of the Powers.

In the course of twenty years these agreements were violated, and thus the permanent gains of the war were slight. It did, however, teach a moral lesson to Russia, as the reforms enacted there in the reign of Alexander II were a sequel to the humbling of her pride.

The Franco-Austrian War (1859).—Early in the sixteenth century Italy, which was ravaged by the wars of different nations that coveted possession of her beauty, had sunk into a state of political apathy. She had long been a bone of contention among Austrian aggressors, Swiss mercenaries, German invaders, and French and Spanish men-at-arms, all of whom trampled her underfoot. The brilliant Italians passed under the rule of a succession of foreign princes, who, with utter disregard of the welfare of the people, treated the whole country as conquered territory and her separate States as mere pawns in their games of diplomacy.

The war over the Spanish succession (1700-'13) led to the ascen-

dancy of Austria in Italy; and, while her rule was comparatively just and humane, the general condition of the people was neglected, and they were in an apparently hopeless state of laziness, ignorance, and poverty.

The invasion of Napoleon brought the first incentive that stirred the insensate masses into a consciousness of life and awakened a desire for change. The brilliant conqueror dashed into Italy in 1796, driving the usurping Austrians before him, breaking their oppressive yoke for a time, and spreading among the people some of the emancipated ideas of the French Revolution.

When Napoleon fell (1815) Italy, of which he had made himself king, fell with him, and soon the old governments regained possession, Austria assuming control of Venetia. The restored rulers determined to crush all popular manifestations by enforcing laws of unusual severity, and the Austrian Government prosecuted all persons even suspected of a tendency toward liberalism. But the Italians had heard too much about the doings of the populace in the great Revolution and the smaller uprisings that came later to submit tamely. In Rome a republic had been organized under the influence of Giuseppe Mazzini, the young republican patriot, and Giuseppe Garibaldi, the celebrated soldier, both of whom wished to improve and elevate the masses and fit them for real liberty. But papal rule was restored, and the old policy of proscription and persecution held full sway again in the Austrian dominions of Italy.

Only Sardinia kept her constitutions, and under the rule of King Victor Emmanuel I she had regained her prosperity, reorganized her finances and her army, and prepared for a new effort to liberate Italy from her Austrian bondage. In 1858 Victor Emmanuel and Cavour induced Napoleon III to enter into an alliance with Italy against Austria. War was declared in 1859, and Napoleon brought the French army to the assistance of his allies. The combined armies of France and Sardinia invaded Lombardy, and on June 4, 1859, defeated the Austrians in a great battle at Magenta, a little town about sixteen miles west of Milan, and entered the city of Milan, the triumphal procession headed by the Emperor Napoleon III and Victor Emmanuel. The French and Italian (Sardinian) troops numbered about 55,000 men and the Austrians about 35,000. Napoleon him-

self took command of the allied armies, but a large share of the credit of the brilliant victory belonged to General MacMahon, who was rewarded by being created, on the battle-field itself, Marshal of France and Duke of Magenta. The loss of the allies was 4,000; Austria lost 10,000 killed and prisoners.

The Austrians retreated to the Quadrilateral—the four fortresses of Legagno, Mantua, Peschiera, and Verona—and were again defeated (June 24) in a battle at Solferino, a small village of the Province of Mantua in northern Italy, in which the allied armies lost 18,000 men, and Austria, under Francis Joseph I, then twenty-nine years old, lost 20,000. Throughout this conflict Napoleon issued orders to the allied troops from the tower of the Church of Castiglione.

But Napoleon, though he desired to free Italy from Austria and unite her several States, did not wish to do so under the rulers of the House of Savoy, the royal house of Italy, the heads of which have been dukes of Savoy since 1416, kings of Sardinia since 1720, and kings of Italy since 1861. He realized that this would be the probable result should he wholly defeat Austria, whereas his own plan was to form eventually an Italian federation under the presidency of the pope and make all Italy virtually dependent on France. Hence he brought about a meeting with the Austrian emperor at Villafranca (a town in the Province of Verona, eleven miles southwest of the city of Verona) on June 11, 1859, and arranged preliminaries which greatly displeased and disappointed the Italian people, whose hopes and enthusiasm had been kindled by Napoleon's magnificent promise to set "Italy free from the Alps to the Adriatic!" The terms of peace gave Lombardy alone to Sardinia and left Venetia in the hands of Austria. Victor Emmanuel was compelled to assent; but soon Tuscany, Modena, and Parma expelled their rulers and asked to be united to Sardinia. This request Victor Emmanuel was ready to grant, but, in order to obtain Napoleon's acquiescence, Savoy and Nice were ceded to him; and so the boundary line between France and Italy was finally fixed at the Alps. The terms of these agreements of peace were finally embodied in the Treaty of Zurich, drawn in October, 1859.

The Liberation and Unification of Italy in 1859-'70,—The un-

Belgian Soldier Digging Shelter Trench for Machine Gun

Belgian Infantry Awaiting German Cavalry Near Louvain

wholesome and ominous tranquillity of Italy, when ruled by Austrian and French tyrants under whom the people lived in a state of stolid and hopeless endurance, received a severe shock from the events of the French Revolution.

The Treaty of Campo Formio, a village in the Province of Udina in northeastern Italy, was signed in 1797 between France and Austria whereby Austria, the Belgium provinces, recognized the Cisalpine Republic, and took over the greater part of the territory of Venetia, France retaining the Ionian Islands and receiving the left bank of the river Rhine. Northern and Central Italy were divided into four republics—the Cisalpine, the Ligurian, the Cispadine, and the Tiberine.

In 1798 Lower Italy became a fifth republic, with Naples as its capital. Charles Emmanuel, King of Sardinia, abdicated his throne, and the existing pope (Pius VI) decamped from Rome. Thus the old order of the whole peninsula was suddenly changed. Yet for some time the unhappy Italian people gained nothing by it but new despots, higher taxes, and enforced interest in the uncertain triumphs of the still new and shaky French Republic. After Napoleon's victory at Marengo (June 14, 1800) his conquest of northern Italy was complete, and four years later, when he became Emperor of the French, he assumed the crown of Lombardy also, and called all Italy his kingdom.

In 1804 a new division of the Italian provinces had to be made. The pope was allowed to remain in Rome, and the Bourbon king, Ferdinand I, to continue as King of Naples. Napoleon renamed Tuscany the Kingdom of Etruria and handed it over to the Bourbons of the House of Parma; while the Ligurian and Cisalpine republics received a viceroy, none other than Eugène Beauharnais, Napoleon's stepson by the Empress Josephine.

Following Napoleon's great victory at Austerlitz (December 2, 1805), he added Venetia to these north Italian possessions, and in 1806 drove from the throne of Naples the Bourbon Ferdinand in order to seat upon it his own brother, Joseph Bonaparte.

In 1809 Napoleon removed the pope from Rome, sent him to France, and declared Rome a part of the French Empire. Soon the new-made Kingdom of Etruria was no more, but was reehris-

tened Tuscany, over which Napoleon, ever solicitous for the worldly welfare of his family, placed his sister, Eliza Bacciocchi, as Duchess of Tuscany and Princess of Piombino.

Temporary as were these new partitions and sub-partitions of Italian territory, they had a marked influence on the people. A new feeling—the pride of nationality—arose among them, springing from the military service of the recruits that were drawn from all districts from the armies of Napoleon, by the breaking down of ancient boundary lines, the welcome riddance of the old tyrannical foreign rulers, the just administration of the code of Napoleonic laws, and largely by the emancipated spirit that had emanated from the French Revolution and still permeated all French institutions.

But after the battle of Waterloo the Congress of Vienna swept away Bonaparte's new creations, and by 1816 some of the Italian sovereigns had returned to their former States; the pope had returned to Rome, education was no longer liberal and was in the hands of the clerics. Rigid press censorship was established, and every person that had played any public part under the Napoleonic régime was watched, followed, and all his movements were reported. The Napoleonic Code was abolished in the provinces that had formed part of the Italian kingdom, and in the Papal States the administration of laws was placed in the control of the priesthood.

All these measures, which were intended to suppress the rising tide of liberal thought in Italy, were encouraged by Austria. Every duke and princeling took his orders from the Austrian emperor, who promised each one the retention of his place and power. In Lombardy and Venetia, fortresses were filled with armed men who held the people in constant fear. As years went on, these intolerable conditions enraged the Italians, who had been sadly disappointed in their hopes of a new freedom by the unsatisfactory peace treaty made at Villafranca between Napoleon III and the Emperor of Austria, and many of the bolder spirits joined secret revolutionary societies, for naturally tyranny fostered conspiracy; and, beginning in 1808, a society calling itself the Carbonari ("charcoal-burners") was holding meetings throughout Italy as champions of the national Liberal cause against the reactionary governments. Other similar societies were organized, and for five years the wrath of the Italians was aug-

mented by continued outrages on their rights and liberties and at last (in 1820) broke out into open flame. In that year the Spaniards, who in their turn longed for greater political freedom, proclaimed their constitution of the Cortes, which was formed after the one drawn up during the French Revolution. Spurred by this example of their neighbors, the royal army of Naples mutinied, and this revolt was followed by others more and more threatening until, in 1821, the allied European Powers authorized Austria to crush the rising revolution in Lower Italy. Austrian soldiers entered Naples, and presently there were state trials and executions, and tyranny established a new reign of terror which succeeded in intimidating the people and holding them in check until 1846, during which time the Italians remained sullenly quiet and submissive, while inwardly they raged at the bad government and tyranny of the aristocrats and the misery of the people.

Such a state of things could not last, and meanwhile the three great men whose glorious fortune it was to liberate their unfortunate compatriots appeared in public life and by writing and oratory, military genius, and masterly statesmanship kindled afresh the fires of patriotism and hope. The first of these three was Giuseppe Mazzini, sometimes called "the prophet of freedom." He was a young Genoese of good family and education, whose ambition it was to lead a revolution that should establish a permanent and indivisible republic not only in Italy but including all Europe. To this end he formed an organization calling itself the "Young Italy" party, which designed to found first a republic in their own country by the aid of volunteers drawn from all parts of the Italian peninsula. They thought it necessary, as an aid in achieving independence, to obtain the coöperation of the Kingdom of Sardinia. Many books and treatises were written and many fiery speeches were made by these young enthusiasts, all of whom were inspired by the grand idea of establishing a confederation of Italian powers. Many of these men differed widely in their ideas as to details, but the three marked out by destiny to give coherence and practical form to the general plan, and finally to win the grand prize of independence, gradually made their way to the front.

The second of the famous trio of liberators was Giuseppe Gari-

BELGIAN MILITARY AVIATORS

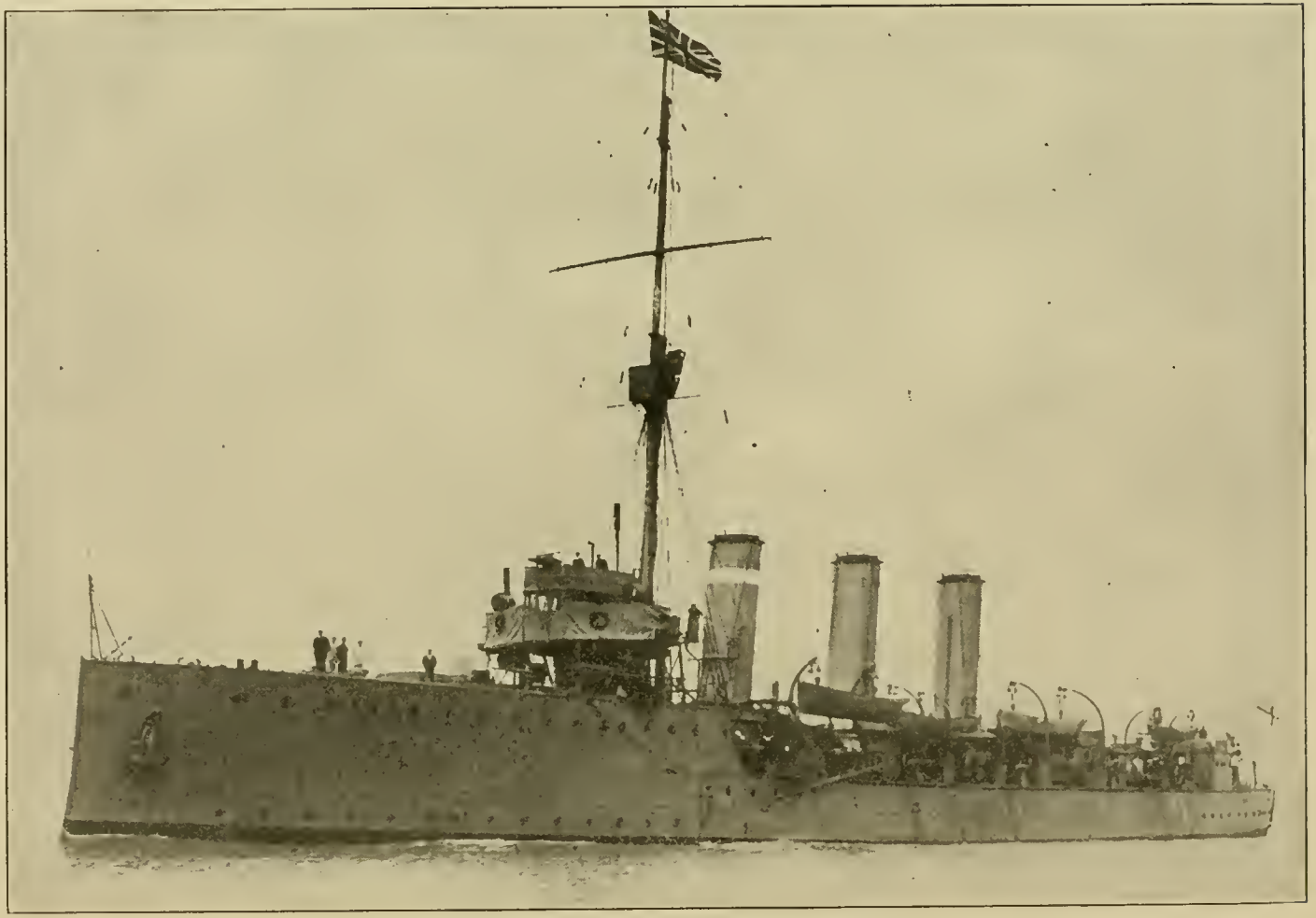
Many Brilliant Exploits Have Been Reported of Belgium's Small but Efficient Flying Corps

baldi, called the "knight-errant of the cause of freedom." Garibaldi was a man of the common people, a sailor in early youth, but a born soldier and leader of men. After an exciting and adventurous military career in young manhood, having always at heart a desire to see his beloved Italy free from foreign rulers and with all her States united, he dedicated his sword to her service to bring about this end, and, after the unpopular peace treaty of Villafranca, which boded so ill for Italy's future, he organized, as commander, a band of a thousand soldiers called "the chasseurs (hunters) of the Apennines," and drilled them with the intention of descending on the Papal States and liberating Rome at least. At that time this former dominion of the Roman Catholic Church comprised the Provinces of the Romagna, the Marches, Umbria, and the now existing Province of Rome.

The political situation in Piedmont prevented Garibaldi from carrying out this plan, but he enlisted the interest and sympathy and gained the assistance of the third and the most powerful of the three liberators, the Count di Cavour, the eminent Italian statesman and benefactor of his country, the ultimate independence and unity of which was the dearest wish of his heart.

After the change of government in 1848 following the general European upheaval called "the revolution" of that year, the Liberal party took the reins of power in Sardinia and framed a constitutional form of government, in the cabinet of which, under Massimo d'Azeglio, Cavour became successively minister of commerce (1850), minister of finance (1851), and premier (1852). He determined to do his utmost to bring about political consolidation in Italy, hence he was ready to assist his fellow-patriot, Garibaldi, in 1860, in forming an expedition to annex Sicily, which was then in a state of insurrection. In March of that year Central Italy had been annexed to Sardinia, under King Victor Emmanuel I, a measure approved and assisted by Napoleon III.

The insurrection in the Two Sicilies against the Bourbon rule of Francis II (son of Ferdinand I) raged chiefly in Naples, Palermo, and Messina. The Two Sicilies (consolidated by Ferdinand I in 1816) comprised the Island of Sicily and that part of southern Italy which, when considered separately from the island, was called Sicily on the hither side of Cape Faro (the northeastern promontory of the



THE BRITISH SCOUT CRUISER "PATHFINDER"

This swift vessel, while pursuing her business of scouting for the enemy, fell an early victim to a German submarine

island) or the Kingdom of Naples. Over this domain Francis II ruled with so much severity, cruelty, and cowardly oppression that his Sicilian subjects were quite ready to join Garibaldi when he landed on the island in 1860 and with his army of a thousand men defeated the Bourbon army at Marsala on the 15th of that month. After several smaller but successful battles the Garibaldian troops entered Palermo, the capital, and the gallant commander assumed the dictatorship of the island. Other brilliant battles followed: on July 29 he won a great victory over the Bourbon troops; on July 28 the fortress of Messina fell into his hands; on August 25 he fought a triumphant battle at Reggio in Calabria, and marched at once upon Naples, where he entered as conqueror, proclaimed himself dictator of the Two Sicilies, and drove out the tyrant Francis I, who fled to Gaeta, in the Province of Caserta. This splendid advance was followed by the victory of Volturno in October, after which a universal vote was passed to annex the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies to that part of Italy then governed by King Victor Emmanuel.

The Bourbon supporters of Francis regathered their military forces at Gaeta, forty miles northwest of Naples, and for several months resisted the efforts of Victor Emmanuel's troops to drive them out. But Gaeta fell at last in February, 1861, and Victor Emmanuel was proclaimed King of Italy at Turin. Europe now gave an unspoken assent to Italian independence, and only Rome and Venetia remained to be set free.

Once more Garibaldi, who had sworn never to rest until these two States should be liberated, raised a volunteer army and led it to Sicily. But now Napoleon III, who wished to have the Papal States and the Church power at Rome preserved, instructed Rattazzi, then the Italian premier, to check Garibaldi's further activities. The royal troops met him and his volunteer army on September 22, 1862, when, not the soldiers of Italy's foreign oppressors but the riflemen of the Italian king shot him and took him prisoner. All Europe so strongly condemned this action and expressed so much sympathy for the Italian people, who had struggled so long for independence, that in a convention held in September, 1864, Napoleon III agreed to withdraw his French troops from Rome if Italy would promise to respect the temporal power of the pope. At the same time the city of Florence

FATHER AND SON

The Kaiser Embracing His Eldest Son, the Crown Prince

was named as the capital of Italy. This move on the part of Napoleon was regarded by the Liberals as favorable toward accomplishing the annexation of Rome to Italy, and the war between Austria and Prussia in 1866 gave them a new opportunity. They allied themselves with Prussia, and the Prussian victory of Königgrätz gave them one of the chief objects they had fought for; and Venetia, including the Quadrilateral, was then added to the Kingdom of Italy.

According to the terms of the convention of 1864, Napoleon withdrew his troops from Rome in 1866. The Liberals at once sprang into action. Mazzini, always an inspirer, called on the people to seize the prize then and there, and Garibaldi vowed to succeed in doing so or die. But again Napoleon interfered. Alarmed for the rule of the pope and the integrity of the Papal States, he reinstated the garrison at Rome for their protection, and there the French troops remained until the fall of the Second Empire in France in 1870, when the agreement made between Napoleon III and Victor Emmanuel in 1862 was declared at an end. The Italian king was released from the promises incurred thereby, and on September 20, 1870, he triumphantly entered the Eternal City, which was no longer the capital of the pope and the Papal States but thenceforth the royal capital of "Italy free!"

The Schleswig-Holstein War (1864).—Schleswig-Holstein, which belongs to Prussia, was formed out of the once Danish duchies of Schleswig, Holstein, and Lüneburg. It is about 140 miles long and varies in breadth from ninety miles in Holstein to thirty-five miles in the narrowest parts of Schleswig. It is a miniature reproduction of the great German plain: the central part is a continuation of the vast Lüneburg Heath; the North Sea coast consists of marshes much like those of Holland and, like those of Holland, is protected by artificial dikes, for much of the land is below the sea-level; while the Baltic Coast has steep, irregular banks pierced by numerous long and narrow fjords, which, running very deep into the land, afford excellent harbors. The islands of Alsen and Fehmarn lie off this coast, from which they are separated by narrow channels.

The marsh land on the west affords such excellent pasture that here the special breed of Holstein cattle has been developed. But this district is more interesting to the historian, because it was from this

Military Aëroplane Reconnoitering

Photograph Taken from an Aëroplane in Flight

spot that the Jutes and Angles emigrated across the North Sea to the southern shores of England to found a new race in Kent and Surrey.

The whole history of the Cimbric peninsula is the record of a struggle between the Danes and the Germans, resulting ultimately in favor of the Germans.

In 1027 the Danish Knut (King Canute, who bade the waves stand still) obtained from Conrad (then emperor) the recognition of Schleswig's independence of the empire that spread over all Europe at this time—the Holy Roman Empire. Then the Eider became the recognized boundary between Denmark and what is now Germany.

Knud Laward (1115-1131) extended his sway and became the first ruler of Schleswig to hold the singular double relationship to the King of Denmark and the emperor, which afterward became an important factor in the history of the country. In 1232 the King of Denmark conferred the Duchy of South Jutland (Schleswig) on his son; and thereafter the terms of this investment became a fertile subject of dispute between the dukes and the crown, the former maintaining that they held their land in hereditary fief, while the kings maintained that the fief was revocable at pleasure. The dukes, aided by their kinsmen, the counts of Holstein, succeeded in establishing their position. In 1326 Duke Valdemar V of Schleswig was made King of Denmark through the influence of his cousin, Count Gerhard of Holstein, upon whom he bestowed the Duchy of Schleswig. The two territories were united under Margaret of Denmark in 1386; and thereafter the same prince ruled over Schleswig and Holstein.

Many were the shiftings, divisions, and reunions of the two duchies of Schleswig and Holstein because of this complicated state of affairs. The duchies were inseparably connected, but owed feudal allegiance to different sovereigns. The situation became more complicated because of the division of the royal line into two branches—the royal house of Denmark and that of the dukes of Holstein-Gottorp and several collateral branches.

After the Congress of Vienna (1815) the King of Denmark was declared a member of the Germanic body on account of Holstein and Lauenburg, and was invested with three votes in the General Assembly. After the restoration of peace, however, Holstein, which never

had been so thoroughly a part of Denmark as Schleswig, grew restive regarding the continued non-convocation of its own assemblies. The troubled year of 1830 brought forth a mutual animosity between the Danish and German populations, and many long-neglected local laws and privileges were dug up and their revival was urged. The troubles culminated in the invasion by an army from Prussia in 1849; but the Danes were victorious at the battle of Idsted (July 23), and peace was concluded with Prussia in 1850. Then the duchies began to settle the question of their ruler, and a treaty relative to this succession, signed in London, May 8, 1852, gave the crown of Frederick VII to Prince Christian of Glücksburg; but when Frederick VII died suddenly in 1863 in the castle of Glücksburg in Schleswig (the seat of his heir), Prince Christian of Glücksburg was proclaimed King of Denmark as Christian IX. However, the young Duke of Augustenburg claimed the title as Frederick VIII, although his father had renounced his rights.

"The claims of the pretender were supported by Prussia, Austria, and other German States, and before the year was out Generals Gablenz and Wrangel occupied the duchies in command of Austrian and Prussian troops, and Denmark was called upon to give up Schleswig-Holstein to military occupation by Prussia and Austria until the claims of the Duke of Augustenburg were settled. In its dilemma the Danish Government applied to England and to France, and, receiving from these Powers what it considered as encouragement, it declared war against Germany early in 1864. The Danes sent their general, De Meza, with forty thousand men to defend the Dannewerk, the ancient line of defenses stretching across the peninsula from the North Sea to the Baltic. But the Dannewerk, popularly supposed to be impregnable, was first outflanked and then stormed, and the Danish army fell back on the heights of Dybbol, near Flensborg, which was strongly fortified, and took up a position behind it, across the Little Belt, in the island of Alsen. It became evident that England and France had no intention of aiding Denmark; but the courage of the Danes was heroic, and they made a splendid stand against their powerful opponents. General Gerlach was sent to replace the unlucky De Meza. The heights of Dybbol were harder to take than the Germans had supposed, but they fell at last, and with them the

strong position of Sonderburg, in the Island of Alsen. The Germans pushed northward until they overran every part of the mainland, as far as the extreme north of Jutland, and it seemed as if Denmark must cease to exist among the nations of Europe; but the Danes at last gave way, and accepted the terms of the Peace of Vienna, in October, 1864, by which Christian IX renounced all claim to Lauenburg, Holstein and Schleswig, and agreed to have no voice in the final disposal of those provinces."

Prussia became enriched, therefore, with the neck of land that separates the North Sea from the Baltic. The true value of this province was shown when the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal was opened in June, 1895. This, also called the North-Sea-Baltic Canal, is sixty-one miles long and extends from a point near Brunsbüttel on the Elbe to Holtenau on Kiel Bay, thus forming a waterway between the North Sea and the Baltic. Kiel has been made the chief naval station of the German Empire and the center of trade with Denmark and Scandinavia.

The Prusso-Austrian War (1866).—In 1866 a war occurred which, though it was very short, was most important. It reached its climax in the Battle of Königgrätz, or Sadowa, decided the supremacy of Prussia over all the German States and led to the acquisition of Venetia by Italy and the constitutional independence of Hungary. At the outbreak of this war, William I had been on the throne of Prussia five years. Bismarck had been his prime minister since 1862. A united fatherland was their ambition, and the supremacy of Prussia their determination.

At this period Prussia and Austria were the two strongest Powers of the German States. Austria, having inherited the torn purple mantle and the broken scepter of the Holy Roman Empire, had long been contending with Prussia. As early as 1849 efforts had been made at Frankfort to form Germany into one empire, excluding Austria, and the imperial crown had been offered to the King of Prussia. To counteract this sentiment, Austria had invited the different States to send representatives to Frankfort, where she assumed the lead; and when Austria and Prussia brought all the representatives of the confederacy to the Diet at Frankfort, Austria proposed that all her provinces, including Hungary and

Lombardo-Venetia, should be absorbed into the German confederacy. Great changes had taken place. Austria had warred with France and Sardinia; the battles of Magenta (June 4, 1859) and Solferino (June 24, 1859) had been fought, and the Peace of Villafranca (July 11, 1859) had been signed. By this, Austria, though forced to give up Lombardy, retained Venetia, which permitted her to be a member of the new Italian confederation.

Next followed the Schleswig-Holstein affair, in which Prussia persuaded Austria to join with her. The territory was more convenient for Prussia to govern than for Austria, and Austria was willing to part with it; but they could not come to terms. At a convention held in Gastein (August, 1865) it was agreed that Lüneburg was to be Prussia's; Austria was to have the administration of Holstein and Prussia that of Schleswig. Austria favored forming the duchies into a separate State and supported the claim of the Duke of Augustenburg. Prussia opposed this and regarded the public meetings that Austria had permitted in Holstein as a breach of the agreement. Then Austria referred the matter to the Frankfort Diet, which decided in favor of the duke.

It was evident that a clash must come, sooner or later, to decide which should be the dominant Power in the German States; and, although both Prussia and Austria professed a desire for peace, both began to prepare for active war. On March 27, 1866, Prussia entered into an alliance with Victor Emmanuel, who agreed to declare war against Austria as soon as Prussia began hostilities, and Prussia promised to gain Venetia for Victor Emmanuel. In May, Francis Joseph I, Emperor of Austria, ordered his whole army to prepare for war and he concentrated many troops on the Bohemian and Silesian frontiers. Prussia called out her full war strength, and forced the Austrians out of Holstein—fortunately without bloodshed. The Prussian force was thoroughly equipped. It consisted of three armies: the first, commanded by Prince Frederick Charles, numbered 93,000 and was destined for Saxony and Bohemia; the second, under the crown prince (afterward the Emperor Frederick), of 115,000 men, was ordered to Silesia; and the third, or Army of the Elbe, commanded by General Herwarth, numbering 46,000, was to accompany the first army on its right flank. In addition to these

254,000 men, there was a reserve corps of 24,300 at Berlin. The Austrian comprised 271,000 men, for besides its 247,000 men the Saxon army of Dresden numbered 24,000. General Benedek was made commander-in-chief. He distributed his men along the frontier, separating Moravia from Saxony and Silesia. On June 16 the Prussians entered Saxony, and two days later they took possession of Dresden. On the same day the Austrians entered Silesia. The three Prussian armies then advanced into Bohemia and on June 26 and 28 won victories over the Austrians. Notwithstanding the difficult marches through the long and narrow mountain-passes of Bohemia and Silesia and the sharp defense from the Austrians, the Prussians were victorious in various minor battles that took place. General Benedek, who had taken up a strong position at Dubenctz to oppose the crown prince's army, was now forced to retreat toward Königgrätz, a town in Bohemia seventy-nine miles east of Prague, on the Elbe. By this time the Austrians had lost nearly 40,000 men. Both armies now concentrated and prepared for a critical contest. The King of Prussia arrived on June 30, and General Benedek took a strong position on the heights between Königgrätz and Sadowa. The Austrians numbered about 220,000 and the Prussians about 240,000.

At eight o'clock on the morning of July 3, the first army opened the attack on the Austrian center and left. The morning passed without any decisive advantage on either side; but the arrival of the Second Army and its attack on the Austrian right, combined with the renewed efforts of Frederick Charles's troops, resulted in an overwhelming defeat for the Austrians in the middle of the afternoon. The Austrians lost in all about 44,200 men, of whom 19,800 were prisoners. The Prussians lost 8,794 men and 359 officers. The Austrians retreated to Zwittan and Olmütz pursued by a body of Prussians; but the King of Prussia marched with 100,000 men toward Vienna, and reached Nikolsburg, July 18.

Francis Joseph was now ready to make terms. He ceded Venetia to Italy, as well as the fortresses of the Quadrilateral—Peschiera, Mantua, Verona, and Legnano—and was willing to recognize a new German Confederation; he gave up all claims to Schleswig-Holstein and paid a heavy war indemnity.

CANADIAN HIGHLANDERS

The Scotch uniform is very popular in Canada, where many regiments wear it. This picture was taken at Valcartier during the review by the Duke of Connaught of the forces Canada sent to England

The war of 1866 gave the death-blow to the Germanic Confederation of 1815. In its place appeared the North German Confederation under the lead of Prussia. The transformation was completed five years later, when, after the successful war with France, the South German States joined the union and the King of Prussia became the German Emperor.

The Franco-Prussian War (1870-'71).—After 1866, when Prussia became the strongest power in Europe and Austria was almost excluded from Germany, M. Thiers predicted the coming German Empire. M. Magne addressed Napoleon III with the bold words: "The national feelings would be profoundly wounded if the final result should be that France has only gained by her intervention the establishment on her two flanks of two neighbors of abnormally increased strength. Greatness is, after all, a relative affair; and a country that in itself is no weaker than it was may be diminished by the accumulation of new forces around it." However, at the beginning of July, 1870, the horizon of Europe seemed without a cloud. On June 30, M. Emile Ollivier, the prime minister, declared that "the peace of Europe never rested on a more secure basis."

The idea entertained by a great part of the French nation and kept alive by poets, historians, and the press, of the re-conquest of the left bank of the Rhine (*les frontiers naturelles*) had a great influence in bringing about the Franco-Prussian war. Other contributory causes were: The involved state of affairs occasioned by the government of Napoleon; the rejection of the "compensation" demanded after 1866 from the cabinet of Berlin for the growth of Prussia in extent and population; news of the introduction of an improved weapon for the North German infantry, which threatened the superiority of the famous chassepot rifle of the French; and last, but not least, the election of the Prince of Hohenzollern to the throne of Spain, which was regarded in Paris as a Prussian intrigue endangering the safety of France.

In 1868 a revolution in Spain drove Queen Isabella from the throne. She took refuge in France, where she became a favored guest of the Emperor Napoleon and his Spanish wife, Eugénie. In 1869 General Prim, who had become president of the council of ministers in the Provisional Government at Madrid, began to search for an

eligible candidate for the crown. His choice fell upon Prince Leopold, of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, to whom he offered the crown of Spain. Prince Leopold informed the head of the House of Hohenzollern, William I of Prussia, who authorized him to accept the offer. Fearful of this increase of German power, the French cabinet decided to intervene, and ordered the French ambassador, Benedetti, to see William I, who was in Ems, and request him to forbid the Prince of Hohenzollern's acceptance of the Spanish crown. William referred Benedetti to the regular method of communication through the ministry at Berlin. Prince Leopold, not wishing to offend France, withdrew; but the telegraphic announcement of the proceeding was considered insulting to France; and the Duke of Gramont thereupon made an inflammatory speech in the Assembly.

The King of Prussia was next pressed to promise that he never would support Prince Leopold in the future as a claimant for the Spanish crown, which was equivalent to saying that war was determined. The Liberal party, headed by Thiers, opposed the war vehemently. That great statesman considered France "unprepared for war." The Imperialists, on the other hand, wanted war. The empress thought if it were successful the throne would be secured to her son, and she would appear as the champion of Roman Catholic principles in Europe. The Imperialists pushed the matter. Refusing the good offices of the other States of Europe, they declared that France was ready—"ready to the last gaiter-button." Germany was more quiet, but very firm. Count Bismarck, who was on his estate at Varzin, went to Berlin July 12, and on the same day General von Moltke arrived from Schweidnitz, to meet William I, who was enthusiastically received on July 15. That same day mobilization of the North German army and the convention of the Reichstag were ordered. On July 19 the French declaration of war was delivered. On July 23 the North German Reichstag was opened, and it unanimously voted a war credit. The internal troubles of France were great: there were virtually two courts—that of the empress, desiring war, and the more patriotic party, representing the true interests of the country, opposed to it. Paris became frenzied with excitement. The delirious populace mobbed Thiers's house and raised the famous cry: *"A Berlin!"*

Thus the war began. The Empress Eugénie was left as regent in Paris, while the emperor went to the front with the young prince imperial. The most astounding ignorance prevailed in Paris. Nobody knew the real state of feeling in Germany, nor of her preparedness for war. The French had been led to believe that their army was in fine condition, whereas it was not organized, not supplied, and was without proper reserve force. Worse still, the incapacity of the leaders was appalling. No one understood the science of warfare; their maps were inadequate; and the use of railways had been improperly studied. The French army was brave, however, and was soon stretched in a frontier line facing Germany from Strassburg to Metz. Metz was selected as the French headquarters and Mainz (or Mayence) as the German. France was now to experience a great surprise, one so great that it forced upon her a new military plan. She had counted on the neutrality of the South German States; but southern Germany, believing that the French attack was part of a plan to conquer German territory and establish a new Confederation of the Rhine, gave its support to the North German cause. Louis II of Bavaria mobilized his army immediately, and his action influenced Würtemburg, Hesse-Darmstadt, and Baden.

The French had planned to divide the army into three groups. Two were to force neutrality upon the South Germans and hasten the hoped-for alliance between Austria and Italy. The other attack was to be made upon North Germany. Napoleon III was commander-in-chief, with Marshal Lebœuf as chief of the general staff. The change of plan distributed the army as follows: First Corps, under Marshal MacMahon, at Strassburg; Second Corps, under General de Failly, at Bitsch; Third Corps, under General Bazaine, at Metz; and Fourth Corps, under General Ladmirault, at Thionville. The Corps of Marshal Canrobert at Châlons, that of General F. Douay at Belfort, and the Garde under General Bourbaki at Nancy formed the reserve of 320,000 men.

The German force consisted of three armies: First, the right wing, under Steinmetz, at Coblentz, of 60,000 men; second, the center, under Prince Frederick Charles, at Mainz, of 131,000 men, with a reserve of 194,000; and, third, the left wing under the Crown Prince Frederick William, at Mannheim, of 130,000 men. The total strength

THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR

The Battle of Champigny, December 2, 1870—From the painting by Detaille

of the North German army numbered 750,000 men, of whom 198,000 were Landwehr; and that of the South German equaled 100,000. King William I of Prussia was commander-in-chief, and General von Moltke was chief of the general staff.

Before the Germans could take the defensive, the French made an attack on Saarbrücken (August 2, 1870), but were forced to retreat on August 6. On August 4 an engagement followed at Weissenburg. On August 6 was fought the battle of Wörth (Reichshofen), where MacMahon, after a most courageous defense, was defeated by the numerically superior army of the crown prince.

The French army now began its retreat to the Moselle. The crown prince detached a corps to attack Strasburg and other Alsatian frontiers, and advanced upon Nancy, where the French crushed Charles the Bold in 1477, bringing the great duchy of Burgundy under the crown of France.

One army marched upon Metz; another army upon Pont à Mousson, hoping to surround the main body of the French about Metz and cut them off from Paris.

Bazaine, upon whom Napoleon had conferred the chief command, decided to retreat to Châlons-sur-Marne and join what was left of MacMahon's army and also a newly formed army; but the Germans attacked Bazaine in the battle of Colombey-Nouilly and Vionville. Both suffered great losses. The French tried to retreat to Verdun, but were prevented. New arrivals strengthened the Germans, and, although the French had acquired well-chosen and fortified positions, they were attacked.

During the period that led up to Napoleon's giving the command of the army to Bazaine, the German armies had been marching through the Vosges and Lorraine, their chiefs carrying out Moltke's orders for the invasion of France. The masses that rolled across the frontier consisted of 400,000 men—dense bodies of cavalry and artillery. The contingent from Baden was sent to besiege Strassburg, while the other three armies drew near the Moselle and Metz. The German advance, on the whole, however, had been slow. On August 18 the battle of Gravelotte was fought, the most equally contested of the Franco-Prussian War and the most sanguinary. It is also called the battle of Saint-Privat. The French resisted bravely for eight

hours, but it resulted in Bazaine's retreat to Metz. A critic says: "Gravelotte was not a masterpiece of the art of war; the victory was not due to the strategy of Moltke; it was emphatically a soldiers' battle. The energy, nevertheless, of the German chiefs in pressing home the attacks on St. Privat and Roncourt was admirable, and deserves the highest praise, and if the effort cost thousands of gallant lives the result more than repaid the sacrifice. The conduct of Bazaine was poor and unskilful; it is said that he never left a spot in the vicinity of Metz, and if the army of the Rhine fought extremely well—the battle, in fact, resembles Malplaquet—we see no traces of the confidence of Wörth. By August 19 the marshal had withdrawn his whole forces under the ramparts of Metz. In a few days the victorious Germans invested Metz, an operation which should have been impossible had Bazaine been a capable chief; and Europe at last beheld the spectacle of an army in possession of a great fortress surrendering to one scarcely superior in numbers, disseminated upon a circle of sixty-odd miles, and divided by the broad stream of the Moselle."

Next occurred the siege of Metz (August 19 to October 27), a series of bloody battles that separated the French force into two parts, and locked up their main army in and about a fortress that was not sufficiently provisioned for such a siege. At this juncture, also, occurred the siege of Strassburg (August 14 to October 27), by General von Werder.

MacMahon evacuated Châlons and attempted to liberate Bazaine, choosing a circuitous flank march to the northeast. The Germans, getting news of this, made a détour north. Bazaine now attempted to break through the German lines and join MacMahon; but the engagements at Noisseville (August 31) frustrated the desperate venture. MacMahon now concentrated his forces at Sedan, where the famous battle was fought on September 1, 1870. The Germans numbered 250,000, and the French 140,000; and, notwithstanding the brilliant charges of the French cavalry, the Germans were victorious. Taking the battle as a whole, and remembering the disorganized state of the army before the fight began, the presence of a large number of raw recruits, the overwhelming superiority of the enemy, the crushing artillery fire coming from the four points of the compass, to which no adequate reply was possible, there can be no question that the

French stood their ground magnificently. But, as is usual with troops when they give way, there was no restraining the French from flight. Marshal MacMahon, wounded very early in the day, was compelled to leave the field. He gave the command to Ducrot. It was MacMahon who chose the position of Sedan, thinking his task, with 100,000 men against 70,000 Germans, was comparatively easy. Sedan was one of the worst positions ever selected for a battle. Two of MacMahon's corps faced westward; the other two looked east. The Meuse prevented retreat southward. On the north, the ground dominated the French position, and this was quickly occupied by the German artillery in tremendous force. The ground separating the corps facing opposite ways was uneven, and was so thickly wooded that the First and Twelfth Corps could not see what was going on in front of the Fifth and Seventh. Neither could the Fifth and Seventh Corps see what was happening before them. Moreover, a very steep and deep ravine divided the two latter from the two former corps.

"Would you mind telling me," asked General Lebrun of a colonel of the Prussian staff, the day after Sedan, "why throughout the battle I saw so few of your infantry in my front?" "The reason is very simple," he replied. "In our first engagements with the French army, we recognized the great superiority of your infantry arm, but at the same time we discovered the great superiority of our cannon over yours; therefore, orders were at once given to all the infantry commanders in the army to keep as much as possible out of the fire of your infantry, while we combated you with our guns."

The battle began at five o'clock in the morning. A shell bursting beneath the horse of Marshal MacMahon wounded the rider, and he was carried off the field. General Ducrot succeeded to the post of commander-in-chief about half-past seven in the morning, and instantly resolved on retreat toward Mezières, in a northwesterly direction. The evening before, he was marching with his corps toward an elevation called the Calvaire d'Illy, the occupation of which would have allowed the army to retire on Mezières, or to occupy a somewhat favorable position if forced into the fray, when Marshal MacMahon recalled him. It is said that that order of recall decided the fate of the French. The various corps had barely been set in motion westward when a fresh commander-in-chief was put over the men. Gen-

THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR

Prussian Cuirassiers Attacking a French Provision Train

eral de Wimpffen, who had arrived from Africa at the scene of action the day before, knew nothing of the ground and nothing of the enemy's movements. He suddenly produced a letter from the Minister of War in Paris, investing him with the supreme command, should MacMahon be disabled. This led a French author to exclaim: "Was any army ever so unfortunate as ours? In the space of about two hours the chief command was held by these different generals, each of whom had a different plan." General Wimpffen immediately turned the army right-about and moved eastward on Carignan and Montmédy. By this time every avenue of exit from the ground about Sedan was closed by an impassable barrier, and after this the battle became little more than a massacre, with the loss all on the side of the French. The emperor, soon finding that resistance was useless, hoisted his flag of truce over the fortress of Sedan. On September 2, just one month after "the baptism of fire" of the prince imperial—as Napoleon had telegraphed to Eugénie after Saarbrück—Napoleon handed his sword to William I. The emperor was sent to Wilhelmshöhe until the end of the war (March, 1871), when he joined the empress and his son at Camden House, Chiselhurst, Kent, England. When he died there, in 1873, his last words, spoken to his physician, were: *Etiez-vous à Sedan?* ("Were you at Sedan?") Two weeks after the fall of Sedan, a curious visitor wrote: "Libramont, a miserable little station on the Luxemburg line, has been suddenly raised to much importance; for since the railway has been stopped, which runs directly to Sedan, it is the nearest way of getting there. Wagons, dirty cabs, an omnibus, ambulance, carts, and every species of vehicle were assembled, waiting for hire, and most of them were employed. About a mile beyond the station, thirty-one wagons and ambulance carts, filled with wounded, passed on their way to the station, some without any attendant but the driver and postilions and tortured by every jolt of the clumsy carriages, with their faces exposed to the rays of the noonday sun. A drive of about sixteen miles along the straight, dreary road, by which the Emperor Napoleon was conveyed to Libramont on his way to Germany, brings us to Bouillon, once celebrated as the birthplace of the famous crusader, Godfrey, but under present circumstances the very dirtiest of country towns and overflowing with Belgian soldiers, French refugees, and tourists. Ambu-

lance wagons, carts loaded with bread and hay, a perpetual succession of rickety drags, and pedestrians, passed continually day and night down the little narrow stone-paved streets, where some were paying five and ten francs each for a share in a hay-loft, and others, for even such a want of accommodation, were compelled to walk about all night. Many of the richer families from Sedan had retired there and were living most uncomfortably crowded, while their own homes were being used as hospitals. The castle of Bouillon stands in a commanding situation on a hill overlooking the town, and a church, as plain externally as a Scotch kirk, lies immediately below it. The river Meuse, winding between high banks, divides the principal street, and is crossed by an old stone bridge. The bright green woods around have been the resort of wolves since the beginning of the campaign, frightened away from the northeast of France.

"The French frontier was crossed without any of the usual formalities; for there are no custom-house officers to keep it now; and half a mile beyond, knapsacks, broken weapons, and cartouche-boxes were to be seen scattered on each side of the road, and graves marked by two sticks tied together with grass in the form of a cross. Every cottage in the village close round Sedan had hung out a Red Cross flag to show that a wounded man was being tended in it; and near the walls the remains of the fight were spread over the gardens and the fields—Prussian helmets, knapsacks, and bayonet-sheaths being most numerous, with two or three horses still left unburied. We met many of the inhabitants of Bazeilles with the property they had been able to rescue from the fire piled on their backs, or else seated on top of it in little carts. Some of them have also encamped in huts like Indian wigwams on the slope of a neighboring hill.

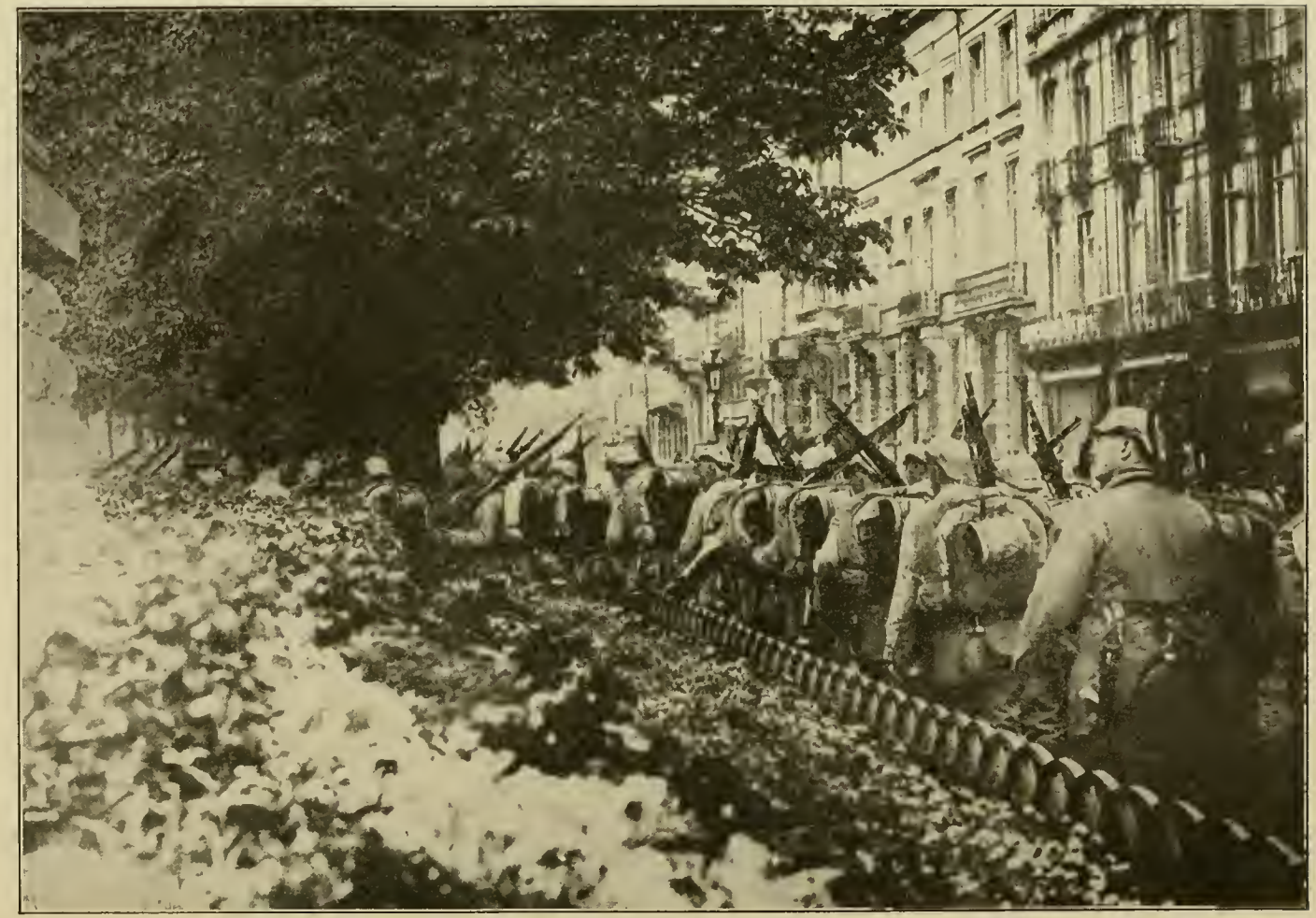
"Sedan lies quite in a hollow, from which you have to ascend every way out of the town. It is surrounded by high fortifications and a moat formed from the river Meuse, which runs through the valley. A Prussian sentinel carrying a needle-gun was perched on the top of the fortification overlooking the Bouillon gate, which we entered over a drawbridge, conducting us into a stone-paved street. The houses are as high as is usual in old French towns, and rather narrow. Several had been destroyed by the bombardment, but these were at the back and not visible to the street. Some of the French wounded

prisoners who were well enough to leave the hospital were sitting on the doorsteps as we entered, and there were numbers of Prussian soldiers walking about.

"At the time of the battle the district was soaked with rain, so that the fire did not extend to the trees or vegetation; and when I saw the heap of blackened ruins which represents Bazeilles, the apple and damson trees at the backs of the houses were uninjured and were covered with fruit.

"The most unprofessional eye must marvel at the fortifications of Sedan being preserved since modern artillery was introduced. On one side the hill rises as high as the walls, and before the bombardment, after the defeat at Carignan, the French held this hill, but they abandoned it to retreat into the town; upon which it was immediately occupied by the Prussians, who dragged their guns up to the top and at once commanded the entire place. A French eye-witness who had nobly assisted the wounded in an open square in front of her house while the bombardment was at its height and the soldiers were being struck down by the shot and shell all round, described the cannonading as being like two tremendous thunderstorms going on at once. She saw the emperor ride out to the last battle, but he returned two hours after the defeat. I was assured that more than one of the generals could not leave his bed early enough in the morning to take any part in it, but that, while all the peaceful citizens had long been roused by the noise of the guns, they were still sleeping and their regiments were led into action by the subalterns. The first sign of the defeat of the French army was the wounded, riderless horses that rushed back into the town—first a few, then increasing chasseurs, lancers, all mingling together; horses bearing the trappings of every regiment in the service, yet still no riders, and their flanks stained with blood. It was long before the citizens would believe but that the French had gained the victory. Surely it was impossible that any nation in the world could defeat 80,000 Frenchmen—till at last the fact began to dawn upon them, and was confirmed by the appearance of the disordered fugitives."

The French lost at Sedan 39 generals, 2,300 officers, and 84,000 men, while 10,000 escaped into Belgium. With the surrender of Sedan ends the first half of the story of the Franco-Prussian War.



THE INVADER IN BRUSSELS

German Infantry Marching into Belgium's Capital, August 20, 1914

The unfortunate news was concealed in Paris; but as soon as it became known, the empire fell and the Empress Eugénie fled to England.

During this campaign numbers of French peasants took up arms and formed irregular corps called *francs-tireurs*. The Germans refused to recognize them as forming part of the regular French force, and when members of this corps were captured they were immediately shot. After the capitulation of Metz (October 27, 1870), and defensive operations were undertaken by Gambetta, the *francs-tireurs* were organized, and they proved a most efficient addition to the French army.

One town after another now fell—Nancy, Strassburg, Metz, Rheims, Dijon, Laon, Soissons, Orléans, and Rouen. The new minister of war, Montauban Palikao, formed a new ministry composed of ultra-Bonapartists; and the disastrous war news was doctored before it reached the public. It was not long before Paris was in a state of siege.

In the meantime, great changes had taken place in Europe. The temporal rule of the papacy came to an end in September, 1870, falling with the Imperial cause of France, which was its chief support. Victor Emmanuel, too, was now at Rome. At Tours, Gambetta was trying his best to raise fresh armies for France; and, now that imperialism had fallen, Garibaldi had placed his sword at the disposal of the struggling republic.

In transforming Paris by widening and straightening the streets, Napoleon III and Baron Haussmann had made external attack much easier than it had been in the days of old Paris. Consequently, the new and beautiful city on the Seine was not prepared to defend herself against the approaching Prussians. Gradually the Germans closed in on Paris. No resistance was possible, because the French army was in Metz, or imprisoned in Sedan. The first siege of Paris began on September 19, 1870, with the occupation of the Germans on the heights on the left bank of the river and the capture of the unfinished redoubt of Châtillon. Two days later the investment was complete.

The Third Republic had been proclaimed under the advice of M. Thiers, with a government of national defense, the chief members of which were Jules Favre, Jules Simon, and Léon Gambetta. General

Trochu, its military head and governor of the city, had under his command 400,000 men—a force that should have been able to hold out against the 240,000 German besiegers. But the soldiers were raw, and the officers inexperienced, and the National Guard excited the people instead of preserving order. On October 31 open revolt broke out. The besieged became demoralized, and the Prussians made demands. They soon captured all the best positions on both sides of the Seine, and held the armies in the southern and western provinces that were hoping to coöperate with the troubled Parisians. The severity of the winter added to the general distress. The empire, having so confidently expected victory, had not provisioned Paris; and a great influx of refugees added to the distress of the citizens already menaced with famine. A sortie undertaken by the French ended in failure; a second sortie toward the north, in December, was repulsed, and the besieged lost the key to the positions on this side. Much damage was done to the forts on the left of the Seine. A third and last sortie was attempted in January, 1871, which resulted in a hopeless retreat. An armistice was signed on January 27, and Paris capitulated on the following day. With great difficulty the city was supplied with provisions. Foreign nations contributed generously to the sufferers; but famine claimed many victims.

One of the strange features of the siege was the fact that Paris kept up almost daily communications on a large scale with other parts of Europe. Nadar, a photographer and aëronautist, inaugurated a system of postal balloons. The first one, named "Neptune," was despatched on September 23, from the Place de Saint-Pierre at Montmartre. Nadar became the hero of the hour, and his name, in enormous letters, decorated his house conspicuously. It was but a step to balloons for passengers, for which passage of even a short distance cost two thousand francs. Carrier pigeons were taken on each trip for the purpose of announcing the safe arrival of the balloon. Next it was decided to use them to carry private messages, and a regular "pigeon-post" was established. The "Lafayette" took out 100,000 letters and thirty pigeons. Other balloons also made regular trips. The most noteworthy of the passenger balloons was the "Armand-Barbés." In addition to the aëronants, the car contained two bags of letters, carrier-pigeons, and several passengers, among whom was M.

Gambetta, destined soon to inspire all with his fiery zeal as dictator of the French Republic.

France soon busied herself with elections for a National Assembly to be held in Bordeaux to arrange terms of peace. The body was largely Republican. M. Thiers was the chief of the executive power, with M. Grévy as President of the Assembly. It was decided for this Assembly to hold its sittings in Versailles.

The "Red Republicans" now asserted themselves; and on March 18 the Commune, consisting largely of artisans, opposed the Versailles Assembly.

In March, 1871, the Germans entered Paris. This event may be said to mark the close of the siege, and at the same time the beginning of the Commune. Taking advantage of the general confusion and the inefficiency of the regular army, the National Guard carried guns to the heights of Montmartre and Belleville. President Thiers, seeing the danger, attempted to remove the ordnance on March 18, but immediately an insurrection broke out, and during the outrages two generals, Lecomte and Thomas, were murdered. Then ensued a conflict between the Government and the National Guard. The Government held Mont Valérien. The insurgents made several unsuccessful sorties in the direction of Versailles, and lost two of their leaders, Generals Flourens and David. The Versailles Assembly instructed Marshal MacMahon to reduce the insurgents to order. Then followed the second siege of Paris, which lasted from April 2 to May 21, 1871.

On Sunday, May 21, the government forces under Marshal MacMahon, having captured the forts on the right side of the river, made their way within the walls. But they had to fight from barricade to barricade before they could take the city. Belleville, the special Red Republican quarter, was not assaulted and taken until Friday. During the week the Communists committed the most horrible excesses. Archbishop Darboy, President Bonjeau, priests, magistrates, journalists, and private citizens, who had been seized as hostages, were shot in the prisons. A dreadful scheme of destruction was carried on by men and women with petroleum, from which they were called *pétroleurs* and *pétroleuses*.

Flames soon spread over Paris. The Hôtel de Ville, the Palais de Justice, the Tuileries, the Ministry of Finance, the Palaces of the Le-

IN THE WAKE OF THE GERMAN ADVANCE

Houses in Belgian Villages Destroyed by Fire and Shell

gion of Honor and of the Council of State, and part of the Rivoli were ravaged. Barrels of gunpowder were placed in Nôtre-Dame and the Panthéon, ready to blow up those buildings. On May 28, the national troops gained a victory in the neighborhood of La Roquette and Père-la-Chaise, and many insurgents were captured and shot. Others were condemned to death, or penal servitude, or transported to the colonies.

During the siege, Ludwig II, King of Bavaria, proposed that the President of the German Confederation should receive the title of Emperor of Germany. William agreed, and in the Hall of Mirrors, Versailles, in the presence of a brilliant company that contrasted strongly with the distress of the people outside, the King of Prussia was proclaimed "William I, King of Prussia and Emperor of Germany." The sovereign is now known as "the German Emperor" and the confederated States as "the German Empire."

Bismarck's work was finished. He had severed the duchies from Denmark; he had thrown Austria out of Germany, and placed Prussia at the head of the State; he had changed the Northern Confederation into the German Confederation with the King of Prussia as President; and now, by means of the Franco-Prussian War, he had placed Germany among the first great Powers of Europe. The Treaty of Frankfort was signed on May 10, 1871, by which Alsace and Lorraine were ceded back to Germany, while Belfort was restored to France. A money indemnity of $1,000,000,000 in gold was paid to Germany for the costs of the war.

The Russo-Turkish War (1877-'78).—When Russia, in 1877, once more took up arms against Turkey, it was to renew a conflict rooted in Turkish misrule during four centuries, and it was linked with events leading to the war of 1914.

Early in the fourteenth century the Ottoman Turks began an invasion of southeastern Europe that gradually gained in strength until it became a menace to the nations north of the Danube. Recruiting their ranks from conquered Christian States, whose strongest children were brought up as soldiers called Janissaries, they subdued the Slavs south of the Balkans, overran Greece, occupied Syria, Arabia, and Egypt, invaded Hungary, and even laid siege to Vienna. In 1453 they took possession of Constantinople, and the Church of Saint

WOUNDED FRENCH CUIRASSIER

This photograph was taken after a battle near St. Quentin

Sophia was turned into a Mohammedan mosque. The tide turned with the rise of Russia in the reign of Catherine the Great. About the close of the eighteenth century the Russians wrested the Crimea from the Turks, gaining access to the Black Sea, pushed the Turkish frontier back to the Dniester, and established that right to protect the sultan's Christian subjects which has changed the whole complexion of affairs in the East. In 1812, Russia, backed by Napoleon, took over Bessarabia, on the Black Sea. In 1828 Nicholas I, for causes arising from the sultan's wrath following the battle of Navarino, declared war against the Porte, crossed the Balkans, and forced Mohammed II to sign the Treaty of Adrianople, September 14, 1829.

Greece was now a kingdom; Moldavia and Wallachia (the Rumania of to-day) were virtually independent, with Russia as a kind of overlord. Finally, Servia, which had rebelled against Ottoman oppression in 1804, achieved autonomy in 1830, with Milosch Obrenovitch as hereditary prince of the Servians. Thus the way was prepared for what came to pass forty-five years later—the reopening of the Eastern question and the beginning of real independence in the blood-stained Balkan States.

The history of these States, from the time they fell under the dominion of the Turk, is a continuous chronicle of murder and savage oppression. At last, in 1876, the burden became intolerable. The peasants of Bosnia and Herzegovina rose against the tyrant, and the Christian Bulgars, rallying to the common cause, slew some of the Turkish officials. Retaliation by the Turks took the form of massacres that in some regions bordered on annihilation. Southeastern Europe supped full with horror, while modern civilization looked on aghast. With sword and torch the barbarous Bashi-Bazouks ravaged the villages of the Moritza valley, burning and murdering until sixty-five villages, with most of their population, had been destroyed. Already the peasants had suffered repeated tortures. Tithe-collectors who could not collect taxes in advance had bound naked men to trees, smeared their skins with honey, and left them to the ants. In freezing weather, they let the frost do its work. Sometimes the peasants were driven into trees, or hiding-places, and were smoked out with green wood, as hunters smoke out wild animals. The actual massacres seemed hardly worse. At Batak, Achmet Aga swore by the

GERMAN OFFICERS DINING IN THE FIELD

This Picture, Taken Near Liège, Shows That There Are Means of Alleviating the Hardships of the Campaign

beard of the prophet that he would not harm the villages who yielded up their arms. The arms were surrendered, and the Turks took all their money, too. Then they slew them—men, women, and children—to the number of five thousand.

An English government agent sent a report of this affair to his home authorities, telling how a church filled with refugees had been fired by Bashi-Bazouks, and the people therein exterminated. This, and similar accounts, sent a shudder throughout England, eliciting from Gladstone a celebrated pamphlet in which he denounced "the unspeakable Turk," and called for his expulsion from Europe, "bag and baggage." But Disraeli was in power; and, as he was a statesman who feared Russia more than he loved the Slav, Great Britain did nothing at all.

Alexander II, Emperor of Russia, for a time entertained hopes that the other Powers would join with him in restraining the Turk. But when he saw that England set trade above sentiment and public opinion he resolved to act for himself and go to the aid of Russia's coreligionists in the Balkans. War was declared upon Turkey, April 24, 1877.

Rumania, which had realized its national ambitions, and was making good progress under its chosen ruler, Charles I, joined hands with Russia and proclaimed its own complete independence. Russia also had as allies Servia and the petty principality of Montenegro.

Bulgaria became the seat of war, and Adrianople beckoned from beyond the Balkans to Russian ambition. Plevna barred the way. This town was in the hands of the Turks, under Osman Pasha, who had strengthened his position and was prepared to make a stubborn resistance. If the Russians could not take Plevna, they could not pass beyond the Balkans; therefore they assembled an army thrice the size of the defenders' army, and pushed forward. Three times Osman Pasha drove them back with great losses. In this emergency they had recourse to Todleben, the brilliant engineer who had proved himself the genius of Sebastopol. Under his direction Plevna was besieged and starved into surrender. On December 10 the Crescent was hauled down, and the Russian army of 120,000 took possession.

With the fall of Plevna, nothing but snow could block the Balkan passes to the victorious army. On January 20, 1878, the Russians en-

CANADIAN ARTILLERY

Canada's first contingent was of 32,000 men. In all, the Dominion will send 50,000 troops to aid the mother country in the war

tered Adrianople, and the dominion of the Turks in Europe was temporarily at an end.

England, having looked on, now came forward to protest. The Russians were getting too near Constantinople, and the nightmare of India in the claws of the Bear once more began to haunt the English brain. The Treaty of San Stefano was signed, under the terms of which—as there was no Metternich to intervene—the sultan acknowledged the complete independence of Servia, Montenegro, and Rumania, and not only granted autonomy to Bulgaria, but permitted an extension of its boundaries that all but expelled the Turk from Europe.

But Rumania, Servia, and Greece were all opposed to this agreement, and so, of course, was Great Britain. The Powers then arranged a general European Congress at Berlin, with Bismarck in the chair, and proceeded to modify the treaty. They did not tamper with the independence of the three Balkan States, but Bulgaria, as defined by the treaty, was cut into three parts, and Rumania was obliged to cede Bessarabia to Russia. Bulgaria's boundaries were confined to a region between the Danube and the Balkans, and, though granted autonomy, the State was still, in a measure, under Turkish control. Macedonia was to remain a part of Turkey, and Eastern Rumania became a Turkish province with a Christian Governor-General.

Bosnia and Herzegovina were taken under the "protection" of Austria. The Powers could not, of course, foresee what would happen in 1914.

The Greco-Turkish War (1897).—At the close of the Greek War for Independence in 1821, the government of Greece was placed in the hands of Count Capodistrias as temporary president, pending the agreement of the protecting Powers as to who should be permanent rulers of the new independent kingdom.

The throne of Greece was offered first to Prince John of Saxony, but he declined the honor. Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg was the next choice, but he, too, declined. In October, 1831, the temporary president was assassinated, which event hastened the action of the Powers in choosing Prince Otho, second son of Louis, King of Bavaria.

Thus Greece virtually fell under government by Bavaria, since no

Wall of House Ten Yards from Where Bomb Struck Pierced by Fragments

The Men Are Standing in the Hole Made by the Exploding Bomb

constitution was made for the new kingdom. This state of things was not to the liking of the Greeks, who, after expressing discontent and breaking out into minor insurrections, at last, at the end of ten years, manifested their desire for a constitution in a way not to be ignored. One night in September, 1843, the royal palace was surrounded by the whole garrison of Athens and a mob of excited citizens, who demanded that the king should heed their wishes. The heads of the military forces informed King Otho that the people were determined to have a constitution and that they intended to remain where they were until they should obtain a promise of one. The king yielded; a national assembly was called to frame a constitution, and thus in one night Greece became a constitutional kingdom, the important document itself being signed in March, 1844. Otho's reign continued for eighteen years longer, but many complaints were made of his government and several conspiracies were hatched against him. At last, in October, 1862, during the brief absence of Otho and his queen, on a pleasure trip aboard the royal yacht, the leaders of Greek political affairs decided to make another change in rulers. On attempting to land from his excursion, the king met a deputation who informed him that the throne of Greece had been declared vacant and that he and his queen would not only not be allowed to return to the palace but that they could not even come ashore. The deposed and discomfited royal pair were compelled to hail a passing British man-o'-war, which took them to Venice. From Venice they made their way to Bavaria, Otho's native country, where they dwelt thereafter in comparative obscurity.

But it was necessary that the affairs of Greece should be kept in order, and another king must be had. A protocol of three Powers offered the crown to Prince George of Denmark, second son of King Christian IX and younger brother of Alexandra, the Princess of Wales, now the Dowager Queen of England and widow of Edward VII. Prince George accepted the crown on the condition that the Ionian Isles—since 1814 a small, nominal republic under the protection of Great Britain—should be annexed to Greece proper. This condition was agreed on, and in 1863 King George I entered Athens and mounted the throne. During his reign, Greece joined the march of modern progress among the nations, and she has developed rapidly.

ON GUARD AGAINST THE KAISER'S ZEPPELINS

Searchlights playing along the Thames Embankment in London as a precaution against the dreaded raid of German dirigibles

Athens became once more a seat of learning and of efficient government.

The Congress of Berlin, assembled in 1878, proposed a readjustment of the boundary line between Greece and Turkey, which for a long time had been a source of wrangling and threatening between the two nations. But the new proposition of the congress was not satisfactory to either country, and it was not until 1881, when the Turkish Government offered a compromise proposal, that the matter was settled for the time being. By this readjustment of the boundary, Greece received all of Thessaly (long under Turkish control) south of the northern watershed of the Salambria, and the country to the boundary of the Neta River.

Greece accepted this rearrangement only under strong protest, for in addition she claimed Crete (formerly known as Candia), regarding that island as her natural possession. The dissatisfaction of the Greeks broke out frequently in minor quarrels with the Turks, who held firm possession of Crete, and by 1897 the popular unrest became rampant. Meantime, the Christian population of Crete were heartily tired of the Mohammedan rule of the Turks, and, longing to be rid of it, called upon Greece to help them.

But the European Powers were then negotiating with Turkey in regard to the rights of Armenia and the Armenians; they warned Greece that she must not interfere between Turkey and Crete, blockaded the Cretan ports, and fired on the insurgents of the island when they attacked Turkish forts and garrisons.

The autonomy that had been promised by the Powers was not satisfactory to either the Turks or the Christian Cretans, and the latter still called for aid from Greece. That nation declared war on Turkey in April, 1897, and landed troops beyond the disputed boundary.

Unfortunately for Greece, she was not prepared for a conflict; her army was badly officered and totally inefficient, whereas the Turkish troops were comparatively well organized. The Greeks were compelled to yield to the savage mastery of a barbarous foe, and presently were completely at their mercy. A sharp demand from Russia stopped the outrageous warfare, and compelled an armistice to be declared. In the negotiations for peace that followed, in December, 1897, a treaty was signed at Constantinople whereby Greece was com-

pelled to pay to Turkey an indemnity of $18,000,000, to submit to another readjustment of the boundary that should be satisfactory to the Turks, and to accept international financial control. Turkey demanded the sole possession of Thessaly again, which had been held by Greece since 1881; but the Powers would not consent to that, and the treaty gave to Turkey, besides the money indemnity, only a small part of Greek territory and allowed Greece to retain her beloved Thessaly, whose cities, valleys, and mountains have been celebrated for centuries in song and story.

War in the Balkan States (1912-'13).—When Francis Joseph, in 1908, showed contempt for a treaty by annexing Bosnia and Herzegovina—thus making Servia an inland State like Switzerland—he came near to provoking that general war which his policy in 1914 finally brought to pass. Then, as now, he had the support of Germany, and had it not been that Russia was weakened by her conflict with Japan, he could not so easily have defied the Triple Entente.

But events in southeastern Europe were so shaping themselves that the problems involved in the Eastern Question were about to undergo a complete readjustment. The territory comprised in the Balkan States had long been the shuttlecock of the Powers. While the Turk remained in Europe, and while Russian interference found a check in the opposing interests of Great Britain, the subject nations south of the Danube were doomed to be the playthings of contending kings. So the lack of a remedy from without awaited a remedy from within. All through the closing years of the nineteenth century the germ of this remedy was developing with the growth of national aspirations and the spread of liberalism. Despotism no longer hindered, but quickened and intensified the passionate desire of an oppressed people to work out their own destinies in their own way. The time came when no tyranny, and no combinations of selfish statesmen, could retard it: the "Balkan war-cloud"—long a hackneyed headline in the newspaper press—really did burst at last, and the rain of fire descended.

That piece of political patchwork, the Treaty of Berlin (1878), was an attempt to weave cloth of gold into the same texture with cloth of frieze. As a garment designed to cover the moral and social nakedness of southeastern Europe, it turned out to be a piece of

shoddy that presently began to split at the seams. The first rent was made by Bulgaria, which had chosen Alexander of Battenberg as its ruler. Objecting to Russian domination, as they had previously resented Turkish misrule, the Bulgarians ousted the czar's ministers, and then, in 1885, joined hands with their countrymen south of the Balkans. By this daring stroke, Eastern Roumelia became a part of Bulgaria, from which it had been unnaturally parted by the

Turkish Troops on the March

Powers. Russia resented an act of impudence that actually set considerations of true national ties above the arbitrary arrangement of boundaries defined by despotic principles. Russian military officers, having schooled the Bulgars in war, now left Bulgaria to take care of itself; and Bulgarian capacity to do so was immediately demonstrated in a complete repulse of the Servians, who had risen in jealous protest of Bulgarian expansion. Then followed the kidnapping of Prince Alexander by the Russians, his return and abdication, the election of Prince Ferdinand (1887), and the rise of the great statesman, Stam-

buloff'. Until 1894, the year of his fall from power and a year preceding his assassination in Sofia, he was the real ruler of Bulgaria, which rapidly took its place among modern and prosperous countries. The climax of this movement came in 1908, when Bulgaria proclaimed her complete independence of Turkey, and her prince took on the title of king.

Servia has been less fortunate. Denied expansion by Austria, harried commercially by the House of Hapsburg, and unhappy in her rulers, she has yet to solve the problem of self-government. She has been a kingdom since 1882, and for seven years she suffered the scandalous reign of King Milan, followed by the despotism of Alexander, only to enthrone in 1903 a king who owes his crown to murder. Yet the nation has tremendous vitality, and it took the lead in the overthrow of the Turk.

The year 1908 was momentous in southeastern Europe. Bulgaria became a kingdom; Austria-Hungary seized two Turkish provinces; and the Young Turks, in the Revolution of July, startled the whole world by wresting a constitution from the sultan and espousing the cause of reform. This upheaval in Asiatic Turkey where, of all countries of the world, despotism seemed to sit secure, supplies an extraordinary chapter in modern history. It is significant as showing the widespread agitation of liberal ideas, and the surprising ease with which these ideas may be communicated and acted upon in the most uncongenial atmosphere. The sultan's name had ever been a synonym for absolute rule upheld by private murder and administered without remorse. Suddenly a secret party among his subjects sprang up as if by magic in Istamboul (Constantinople), rallying to the cause their brother exiles in Paris. When Abdul Hamid called upon his army it did not obey. For even the army had gone over to the conspirators; and absolutism, outwitted, now graciously permitted a parliament. The revolution had been accomplished with little disorder, and all classes and creeds, forgetting hereditary hatreds, became as brothers who had overthrown the common enemy. Never before in the world's history had infidel and Christian, purified of rancor, met on the neutral ground of humanity and embraced within sight of the Crescent.

It was perhaps this triumph of the Young Turks that precipitated

Austria-Hungary's rapacious action the following October, that inspired the Greeks of Crete to announce their allegiance to Greece, and that hastened the proclamation of independence by Bulgaria. Yet the Young Turks survived these successive shocks to their prestige. They were even able to regain the upper hand in Constantinople when the army mutinied in April, civil war was threatened, and massacres took place in Asia Minor.

Christians Fleeing from Turkish Territory

Once more in control, after a brief campaign involving the capture of Constantinople by loyal soldiers from afar, the Young Turks deposed Abdul Hamid and placed Mohammed V on the throne. But against the violations of the Treaty of Berlin they protested to the Powers in vain. It seems that, for all their good intent, Turkish reform had come too late to avert a catastrophe brought about by centuries of cruelty throughout the Ottoman Empire.

When the Powers in 1878 had endeavored to lay the ghost of the Eastern Question by an artificial and ineffectual arrangement of boundaries, they had begged the little question within the greater—the question of what should be done with Macedonia, the last redoubt

of the Turks in Europe. Macedonia, with an area about equal to that of Illinois, stretches from Thrace on the Black Sea westward to Albania on the Adriatic. The Lord of Misrule, possessed by the spirit of malign mischief, could not have assembled a population more diverse or more torn by contending interests. Macedonia has been at once a tragedy and a farce. As an experiment in political chemistry, it presents an aggregation of human atoms flying violently apart. It is less homogeneous than the east side of New York City, and its government has been more corrupt than a ward politi-

Turkish Guns Protected by Sand Bags

cian could imagine in his dearest dreams. Its races are a mixture of Slav, Bulgar, Bulgar-Slav, degenerate Roman, conquered Greek, Albanian bandit, and unclassified mongrel. Massacre has for generations been a pastime, and injustice and oppression a matter of course. Why it should remain inhabited at all, by people strong enough to walk out of it, is a conundrum that only over-populated Europe can answer. Yet Macedonia, taken over by the various Balkan States in rational relation to its races, would undergo the usual transformation, and emerge from its disorder. As the Powers of Europe did not know what to do with Macedonia, in 1878 they once more turned it over to the Turk.

The distress of this unhappy country was not alleviated under the

Turkish Soldiers Dying of the Cholera Near Constantinople

régime of the Young Turks. Among their number was no man of that commanding statesmanship essential to the reconstruction of the empire. Neither in Europe nor in Asia were the reforms proposed by the new political party carried out by its controlling committee of reunion and progress. There were uprisings in Albania and Arabia, and a massacre of Armenians by Kurds, and on September 29, 1911,

war broke out between Turkey and Italy as a sequel to the ultimatum demanding Turkish recognition of an Italian protectorate in Tripoli. This war lasted a year. The Italians were able to occupy the coast of Tripoli and to hold it, and in 1912 their fleet captured some of the Ægean Islands and sank two Turkish warships in the harbor of Beirut. By this time popular discontent in Turkey had increased;

Aviator Reporting His Trip Over Adrianople to the Bulgarian General Yankoff

the political power of the Young Turks was overthrown by members of the Liberal Union, the parliament was dissolved, and freedom of the press was denied. Also, there were rumblings of impending war in the Balkans. So Turkey hastened to make peace with Italy (October 18, 1912), leaving the Italians free to administer civil affairs in Tripoli.

Turkey was now confronted by a far more serious situation, arising from chronic failure to effect long-promised reforms in Macedonia. The Powers have guaranteed these reforms, just as they had

guaranteed to Turkey the integrity of possessions held under the flimsy Treaty of Berlin. But it had really suited their purpose better to let things in Macedonia take their course. Good government in that country meant indefinite occupation by the Turk, while barbarous government might some day provide the excuse for partitioning the Ottoman Empire among themselves in a friendly way.

In the Turkish Trenches Near Tchatalja

But the Christian States in the Balkan Peninsula had become weary of waiting. Early in 1912 they proposed to settle the question for themselves, without asking leave of Europe. For the time being, rivalries were buried, and in February, 1912, Servia, Bulgaria, Greece and Montenegro formed an alliance to promote the common interests. This alliance aimed first of all to enforce neglected reforms, and military preparations were made without further delay. So rapidly did the war spirit spread that in September Turkey took alarm and assembled an army near Adrianople, under the thin pretext of army maneuvers. Thereupon Servia and Bulgaria launched at the Porte an ultimatum for administrative reform. This was rejected, and the

Powers strove to avert a conflict. But it was too late. Macedonia, from the Euxine to the Adriatic, and from Servia to Thessaly, almost immediately became the scene of an amazing war in which the Turks—invincible against Greece in 1897—repeatedly gave way to their aggressors.

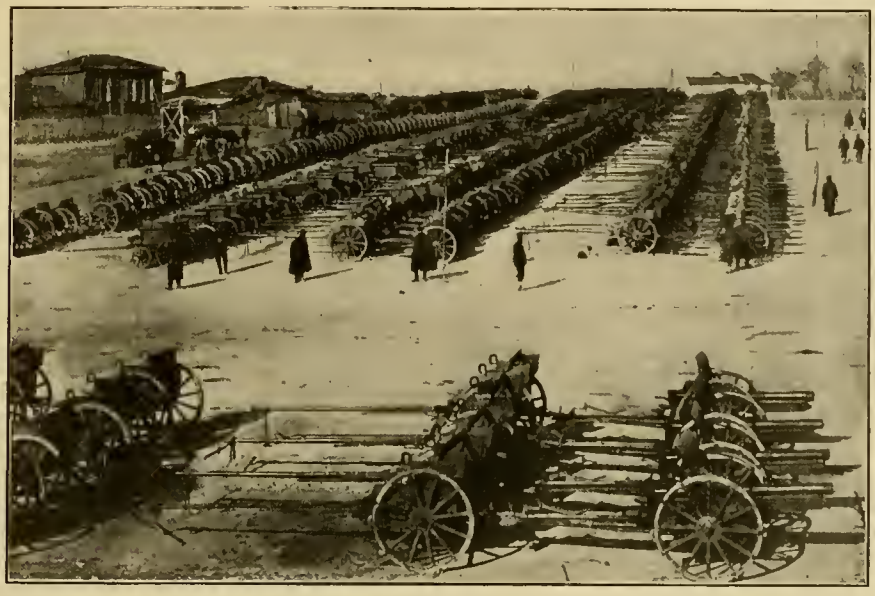
Little Montenegro was the first to act, declaring war against Turkey on October 8. It was still hoped that the Turks would come to terms, but they would not brook the interference of the Balkan States in their internal affairs, and on October 17 war was declared by Turkey against Servia and Bulgaria. On the same day Greece, whose ships had been seized in Turkish waters, declared war against the Porte.

In the general conflict that ensued, Servia may be said to have taken the leading part. Yet her allies performed prodigies as well. Two columns of the Montenegrin army pressed south toward Scutari, in northern Albania; and a third column, under General Vukovitch, marched eastward to join the Servians. In Albania, Lazovitch led a column that reduced several Turkish fortresses and cleared the way to the capital, Scutari. Here the western army, under Martinovitch, combined with him in beginning the siege of the city, garrisoned by eighteen thousand troops. To cut off its supplies, Martinovitch successfully attacked the seaport towns on the west, and, driving the Turks down the Adriatic coast, forced them into Alessio. Here the Montenegrins were joined by a Servian column that had managed to push its guns from Prizrend through the snow of the Albanian Mountains. Four hours later the Turkish garrison surrendered (November 18).

The Servian army was two hundred thousand strong. Two of its columns, commanded by Crown Prince Alexander and General Stefanovich, set out to capture Usküb, garrisoned by a Turkish army corps. At Kumanovo they encountered the Sixth Corps of the Turks under Zekki Pasha. The Servian artillery proved to be too much for the enemy in a furious battle that raged for two days, and five thousand Turks were slain. What was left of Zekki's army fled to Usküb, only to be routed once more by the victorious Serbs (October 26). This time his troops found refuge with the Seventh Corps at Monastir, engaged in resisting the Greeks. Here again the Servians fell

upon and utterly routed the enemy. Monastir, with more than forty thousand troops, surrendered on November 15.

The Bulgars, with three hundred and forty thousand men, had taken the field in Thrace. At first Abdullah Pasha, with two hundred and fifty thousand troops, awaited the Bulgarian advance at a point north of Adrianople; but he soon fell back upon a fortified zone with Adrianople at one extremity and Kirk Kilisseh at the other. From Kirk Kilisseh the Third Corps, under Mukhtar Pasha, was



Guns Captured from the Turks by the Bulgars

routed on October 24 by Dimitrieff, and fled in a panic to Viza. Five days later the Bulgars, under Kutincheff, reënforced by three brigades from Iranoff, took Lüle Burgas by assault. Viza, however, with its one hundred and sixty thousand troops, resisted Dimitrieff's attack, and Abdullah was emboldened to take the aggressive. But his army, weakened by the withdrawal of one hundred thousand men for the defense of Constantinople, short of ammunition, and fasting for three days, could not cope with the Bulgars. It retreated in disorder, without food, transports or ambulances, to the Tchataldja lines that form the land defense of Constantinople, across the peninsula, about twenty miles from the capital. Here the Turks rallied,

and with the aid of heavy siege guns that outranged the opposing artillery held their own in a two days' battle (November 17-19).

Meanwhile Greece had not been idle. The greater part of her one hundred and ten thousand troops marched against Salonica. On November 8 the Turkish commander, finding himself besieged by greatly superior armies that virtually surrounded him, surrendered the city to the Greeks, Serbs, and Bulgars. The allies took thirty thousand prisoners, and Greece brought her navy into play, blocking Turkish ports and seizing islands of the northern Ægean. Another Greek army had pushed north into Epirus, with Janina as the objective; still another had taken part in the successful assault of the Serbs on Monastir.

But now, with cholera in the Turkish camp and Albania proclaiming her independence, an armistice was declared, in which Greece alone refused to participate. A peace conference held in London came to nothing, and on February 3 the war was renewed.

Abdullah had left forty thousand men in Adrianople, and the Bulgars now bent their energies to reducing it and to breaking through the line of two hundred thousand men that protected Constantinople. Iranoff, in his siege of Adrianople, now had the assistance of forty-five thousand Serbs. The city had stoutly resisted the attacks of the Bulgars alone, but on March 26 it fell before the combined assault of Serb and Bulgar. The siege cost the allies seven thousand men. The Turks had lost one thousand, and they yielded up thirty thousand prisoners. On the peninsula the Bulgars fell back, hoping the Turks would follow them inland.

The Greeks, ignoring the armistice, endeavored to take Janina, and on March 6 it surrendered to the crown prince. At Scutari, too, the armistice had been ignored, and on February 6 the Montenegrins, aided by fifteen thousand Serbs under Colonel Popovich, began a furious assault. A few weeks later the Powers, who had once more began to meddle in Balkan affairs, came to an agreement concerning the boundaries of Albania, and called upon King Nicholas to raise the siege. The Serbs responded to this demand, but stubborn Montenegro would not release its grip till the city fell (April 23), though Austria threatened invasion and the battle-ships of the Powers assembled on the coast.

Peace came at last, after repeated requests by Turkey for mediation; representatives of the five States met in London, and on May 30 the Treaty of London was signed. By the terms of this treaty Turkey turned over all Macedonia to her new conquerors, retiring to the east of a line drawn from Enos on the Sea of Marmora to Midia on the Black Sea. Crete, too, was abandoned; and Albania and the captured Ægean Islands were left to the wisdom of the Powers. Mr. Gladstone's wish had virtually been fulfilled: the Turks were in-

Turkish Troops on the Firing Line

deed expelled from Europe, "bag and baggage." But Great Britain had had no part in the transaction.

Having gained a glorious victory, the Balkan States now proceeded to quarrel over the spoils. Servia had been deprived of Albania by the Powers, and was not disposed to live up to her private bargain with Bulgaria respecting new boundaries. Rumania, which had done no fighting, came forward with a demand for a Southern strategic frontier to be carved from Bulgarian territory. Greeks and Serbs had formed a new alliance. Then, suddenly, without declaration of war, Bulgaria hurled an army against these foes. Servia, though unprepared, not only met the attack, but put the Bulgars to rout. The Greeks, too, were successful in several fights, and on July 10 Montenegro went to Servia's assistance. Bulgaria was battling alone, and the Turks took advantage of her predicament. The Turkish army was still mobilized, and sixty thousand Bulgarians en-

Flags of the Powers Flying Over Scutari After Its Surrender

camped near Rodesto were no match for it. Lüle Burgas, Viza, Adrianople—all were recaptured (July 22).

Serbs and Greeks pressed their campaign, and meanwhile the King of Rumania marched upon Sofia. Bulgaria could but yield. The strategical frontier was promised, and a Bulgarian envoy set out for Nish, to negotiate with Servia and Greece.

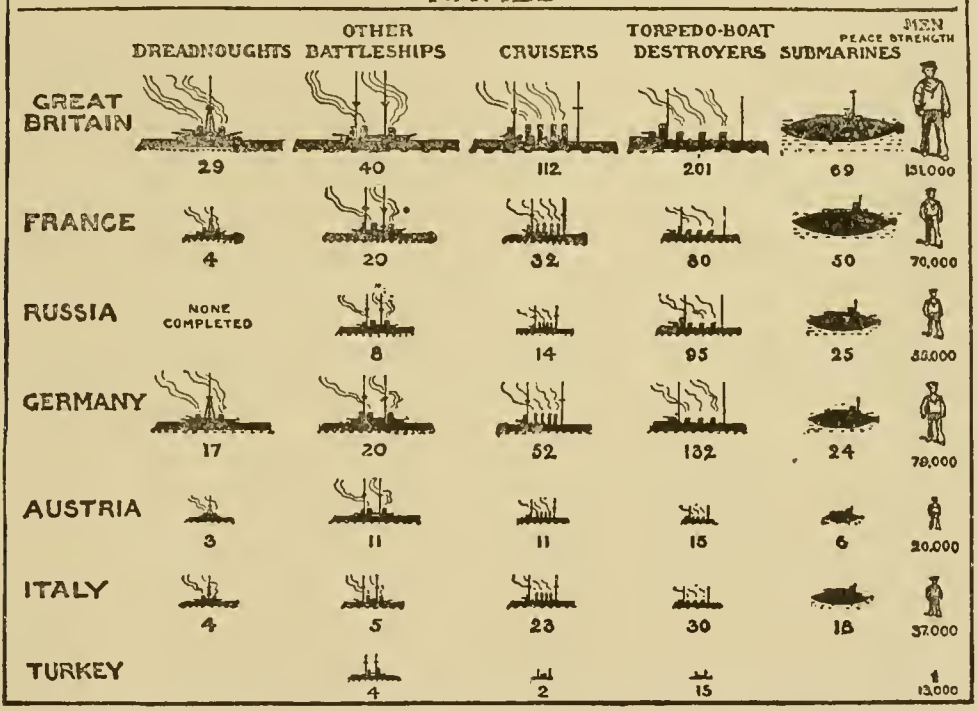
On August 10, 1913, the treaty signed at Bucharest doubled the domain of Servia. Greece received parts of Albania, Macedonia and Thrace. Rumania acquired two thousand square miles of Bulgaria's northwestern territory. To Bulgaria was allotted seven thousand square miles to the south and west. Montenegro received a small reward. In September the Turk was formally reinstated in an area comprising Adrianople and Kirk Kilisseh; and in November Greece and Turkey came to an agreement.

WAR STRENGTH OF THE GREAT POWERS

ARMIES

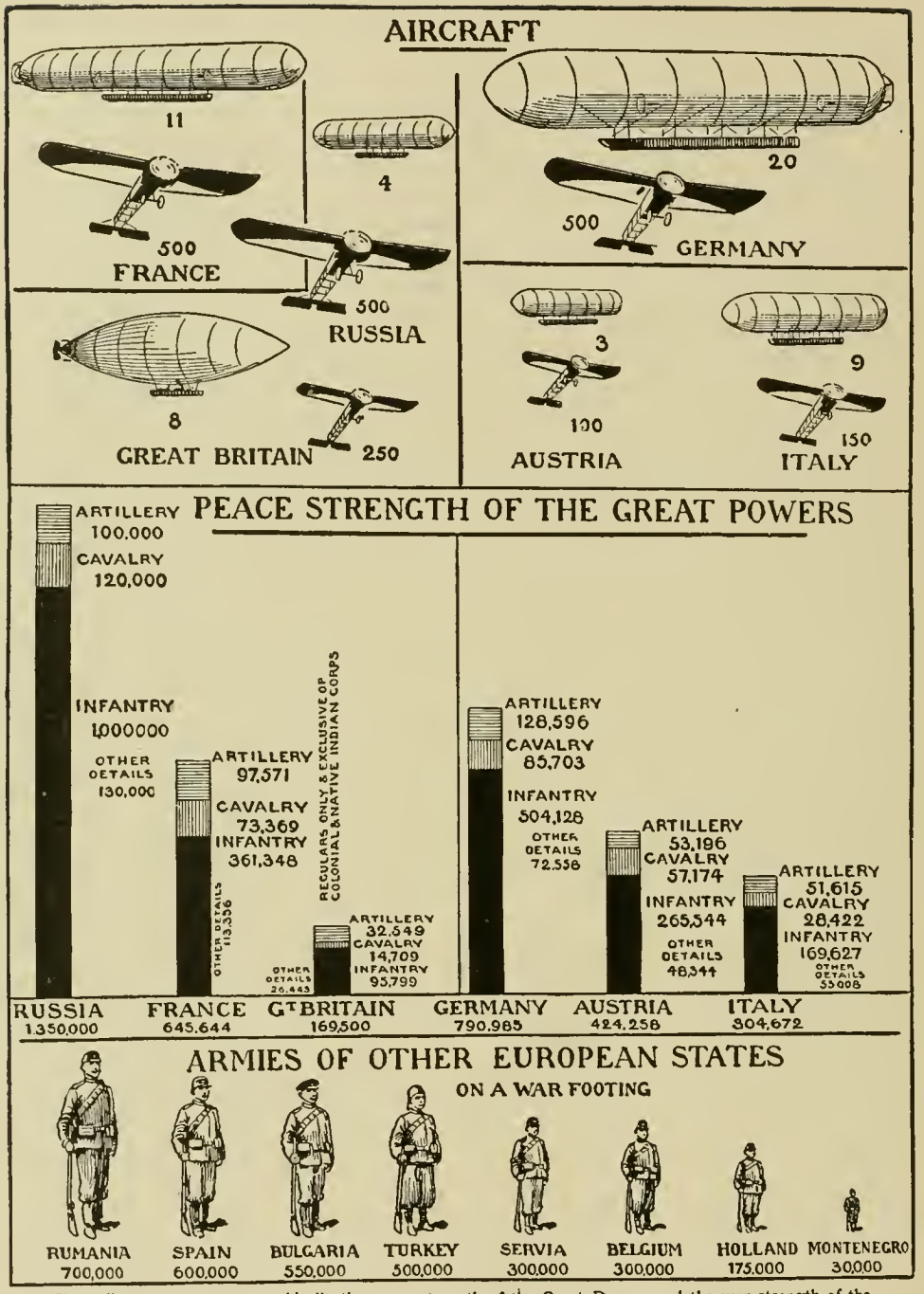
RUSSIA	FRANCE	GREAT BRITAIN	GERMANY	AUSTRIA	ITALY
5,500,000	4,000,000	800,000	4,500,000	2,500,000	2,000,000

NAVIES



The army diagrams represent the relative strength of the forces available for the war, estimated on a conservative basis. The naval figures are only approximate, as no single classification can be strictly applied to all navies. Several ships have been added to the British Navy since the outbreak of the war.

—*From Nelson's "War Atlas."*



These diagrams represent graphically the peace strength of the Great Powers and the war strength of the smaller states. The aircraft are given as at the beginning of the war.

—*From Nelson's "War Atlas."*

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
English Miles
Longitude East 22 from Greenwich
GERMANY
RUSSIA
POLAND
BAVARIA
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
SILESIA
GALICIA
BUKOWINA
TRANSYLVANIA
HUNGARY
ROUMANIA
BULGARIA
SERVIA
BOSNIA
SLAVONIA
HERZEGOVINA
MONTENEGRO
CARNIOLA
TYROL
SALZBURG
ITALY
ADRIATIC SEA
VIENNA
BUDAPEST
BELGRADE
BUKHAREST
MUNICH
R. Danube

FRANCIS JOSEPH (FRANZ JOSEF—FERENCZ JÓZSEF) I

Emperor of Austria, Apostolic King of Hungary, King of Jerusalem, etc. Born at Schönbruunn, August 18, 1830. Son of the Archduke Francis Charles, and of Sophie, Princess of Bavaria. Succeeded to the throne, December 2, 1848. Crowned King of Hungary, June 8, 1867. Married, April 24, 1854, Elizabeth, Duchess of Bavaria

CHAPTER X

COUNTRIES INVOLVED AND AT WAR

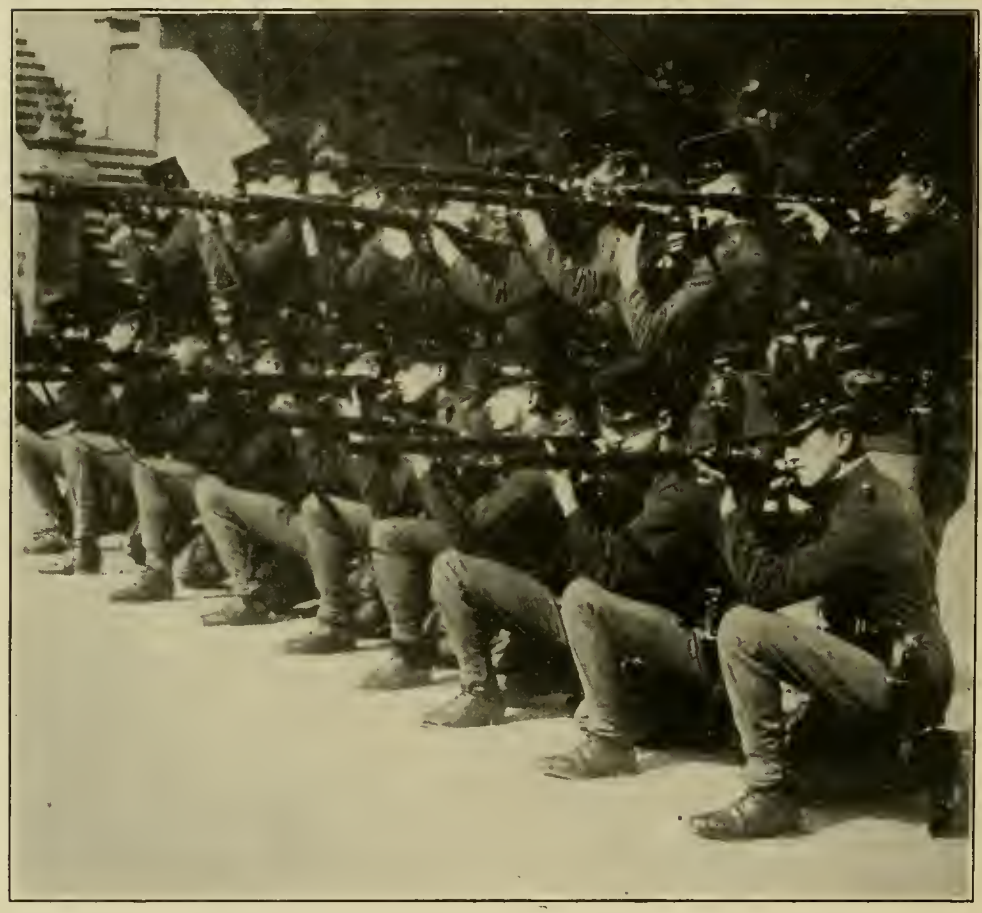
Austria-Hungary.—Austria-Hungary, the largest country in Europe except Russia, embraces the Austrian Empire, the Kingdom of Hungary, and the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, annexed in 1908. The western, or Austrian, half of the monarchy includes the Kingdom of Bohemia, the margraviate of Moravia, the duchy of Silesia, the archduchies of Upper and Lower Austria, the duchies of Styria, Salzburg, Carinthia, and Carniola, the county of Tyrol, the dependency of Vorarlberg, the county of Goez and Gradisca, the margraviate of Istria, the city of Trieste, and the strip of land along the coast of the Adriatic Sea known as Dalmatia. North and northeast of Hungary are the Kingdom of Galicia and the Duchy of Bukowina, both included in the imperial dominions. This half of the empire is called the Cisleithania division, meaning the lands on the western side of the river Leitha. The area of Austria alone is 115,903 miles, and its latest census gives 26,150,708 of population.

Hungary, the Transleithan division of the dual monarchy, lies east of Austria, with Austrian Galicia on the north, Rumania on the east and south, and Servia, Dalmatia, and Bosnia also on the south, and Transylvania in the west. It is comprised of Hungary proper, with an area of 108,229 square miles, Croatia-Slavonia (16,418 square miles), and the city of Fiume, the total area being 124,655. The population of Hungary is 19,254,559.

On the northeast and the southeast, the territory of Austria is encircled for nearly 900 miles by the Carpathian Mountains. In the west and southwest extend ramifications of the Tyrolean Alps a long distance in the country. The characteristic geographical feature is the great central plain of the Alföld, covering about 37,500 square miles, and consisting of wide, open, treeless tracts where great herds of horses, cattle, sheep, swine, and even buffaloes, graze. Many acres

of this vast plain have been cultivated, and they produce enormous crops of various grains. In Transylvania fine horses are bred.

Next to the Volga River, in Russia, the Danube, of Austria, is the largest river of Europe, 820 miles long, and navigable by very large ships. Its canals, connected with the Rhine and the Elbe, are



A Detachment of Cadets from Austria's West Point

important waterways for commerce. Before 1492, this river was the trade route from Europe to Asia, goods being brought by camels to the Mediterranean ports of Asia and sent to either Venice or Constantinople; they were then taken across the Black Sea to the mouth of the Danube and thence brought up into Central Europe. No longer is the Danube the chief route to Asia, but it is the great artery

of Austro-Hungarian life, and commercial products of all kinds are carried over its waters to flourishing towns and cities along its banks. In its valleys is the finest fertile land in the country, the southernmost regions of which grow grapes, corn, and olives. Unlike most of Europe, the united lands produce enough food for their own people.

From the days of Charlemagne, who reigned from 768 to 814, the

Funeral Procession of the Archduke Ferdinand Passing Through Sarajevo

territory lying south of the Danube River was a margraviate, or "border country," under the rule of a margrave ("keeper of the border") until the year 1156; when it was raised to a duchy, later becoming an archduchy. By 1438 the rulers of this territory had annexed the provinces north of the Danube, and in that year began in Germany the continuous reign of the House of Hapsburg, which took its name from a German princely family dwelling in the castle of Hapsburg ("hawk's castle") on the banks of the Aar River, the founder of which house being Count Rudolf, who was elected Emperor of Germany in 1273 and later acquired Austria and established his line there,

GROUP OF AUSTRIAN HUSSAR OFFICERS

The Austrian Cavalry are a dashing body of troops. In times of peace their striking uniforms lend great brilliance to Austrian military displays

In Hungary the Hapsburg rule began in 1526, when Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia were added to Hungarian dominions, over which Maximilian II was the first emperor to receive the imperial crown, in 1564. In 1716 a successful war against Turkey made the monarchy still stronger. A loose kind of federation held the States together until Napoleon made himself Emperor of the French in 1804, when Francis I, son of Leopold II, of the Holy Roman Empire, proclaimed himself hereditary Emperor of Austria, and united all the States in the Empire of Austria-Hungary. He could not check the

Austrian Marines at Trieste

career of the conquering Napoleon, and was compelled to make peace with the French Emperor after the battle of Wagram, whereby Austria lost 32,000 square miles of land. This did not prevent the audacious Napoleon from presenting himself as a suitor for the hand of Austria's princess, Maria Louisa, whom he married in 1810, having divorced the Empress Josephine the previous year. The present reign, under Francis Joseph I, who acceded to the throne in 1848, has been reasonably peaceful and very prosperous.

Hungary had a stormy career until 1867, when an independent Hungarian ministry was formed under the leadership of Count Andrássy. The first Hungarian Constitution was made in 891 when the country was occupied by the Magyars. Before this time the ter-

The Archduke Charles Francis, Nephew of Francis Joseph I, Heir Apparent to the Throne of Austria-Hungary, and His Wife, Princess Zita of Parma

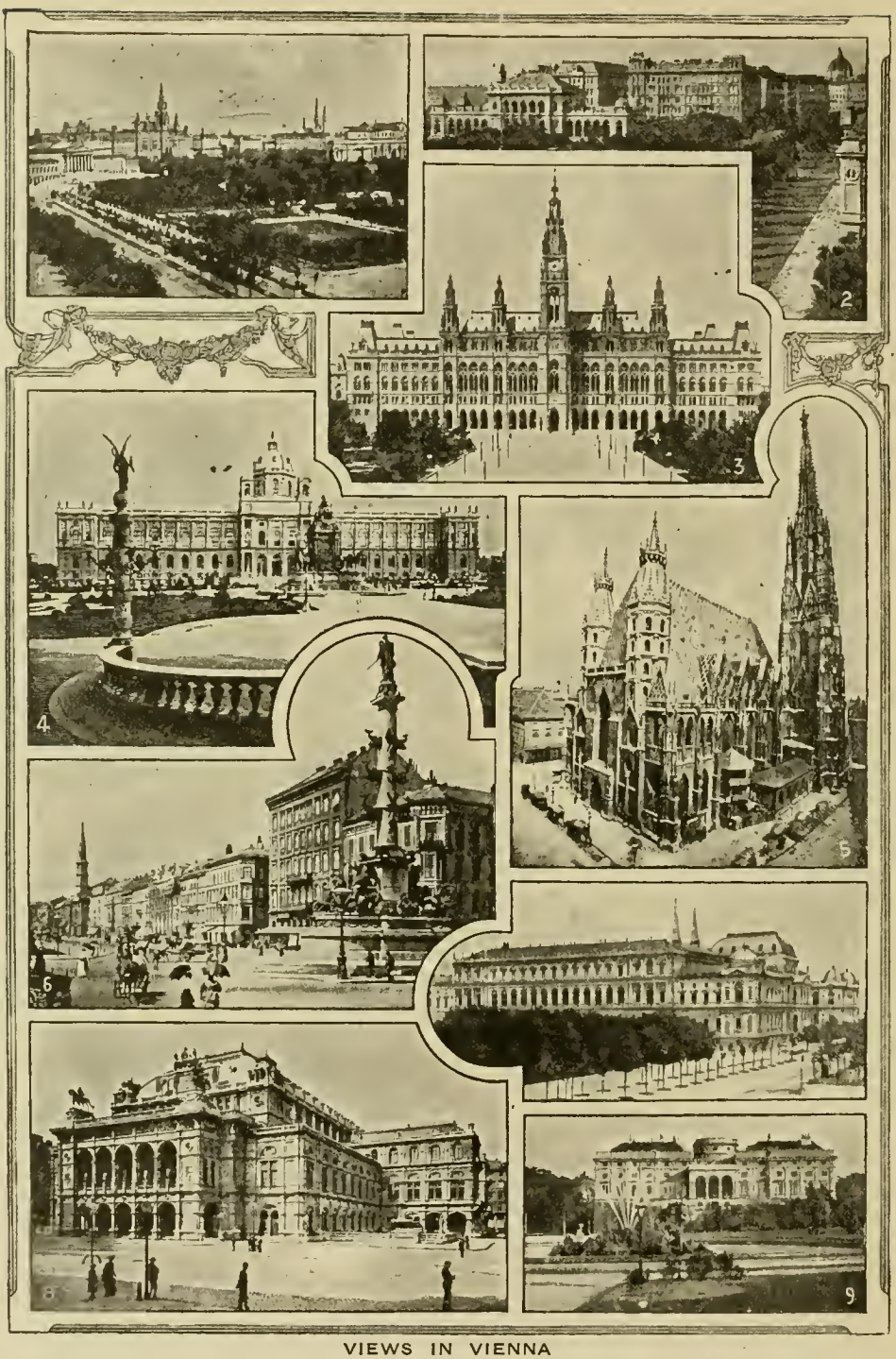
The Archduke Ferdinand, Whose Assassination at Sarajevo Precipitated the War, His Wife, the Duchess of Hohenberg, and Family

ritory had been a Roman possession. And at the fall of the Roman Empire it was overrun by different peoples, among whom the Huns and the Avars lived the longest period and from whom the name "Hungary" is supposed to be derived. The Magyars are believed to be of Turanian blood—that is, descended from the ancient Scythians. In Hungary they settled along the borders of the Danube, but went on marauding expeditions as far as Greece and Italy. In 985 Geya, their leader, became a Christian and took the name of Stephen. His son married a daughter of the House of Bavaria, thus connecting Hungary with one of the kingdoms of Europe. The first charter granting rights to the people was made in the year 1222, and was called the "Bulla Aurea." In 1848 the dealings of the Austrian court with Hungary drove the Hungarians to insurrection, led by Louis Kossuth. The insurrection was quelled, and the charter rights were not restored until 1867, when the crown of Hungary was offered to the present Austrian Emperor, who vowed to maintain for the Hungarians all the rights allowed by the ancient constitution.

This chief bond of connection between the two peoples is in their possessing the same ruler. He takes separate oaths of office and has a coronation ceremony at both Vienna and Budapest, the Hungarian capital. It was agreed in 1867 that both countries should have a common administration for certain state business, although each should retain absolute independence, with its own constitution and legislative bodies. Certain financial matters, such as taxes and coinage, as well as the duties of public officials and the system of weights and measures, are discussed and settled by the legislatures of the two countries once in ten years.

The legislative bodies—known as the Delegations—of each country deliberate separately, and exchange necessary business communications in letters. If, after these interchanges, the two Delegations cannot agree, they meet in person and vote upon vexed questions without debate.

In both monarchies military service is compulsory, beginning at twenty-one years of age and continuing for three years in the regular army, followed by seven years among the reserves. One year of active service is required by men belonging to the educated class. Until 1914 six cavalry divisions were maintained. The peace strength of



VIEWS IN VIENNA

1. Franzensring. 2. The Kursaal. 3. The Rathaus. 4. Museum. 5. St. Stephen's Cathedral.
6. Tegethoff Monument and Praterstrasse. 7. University. 8. Opera House.
9. Schwarzenberg Palace

the whole army was estimated as follows: Infantry, 110 regiments, 10,800 officers and 183,000 men; cavalry, 42 regiments, 1,926 officers and 45,996 men. Besides these troops, the Austrian Landwehr and the Hungarian Honved must be included, numbering about 45,000 and 32,000 respectively, which brought the total of officers and men up to almost 400,000 before 1914.

Education is compulsory in both States: in Austria, between the ages of six and fourteen; in Hungary between six and twelve. Full religious liberty is allowed in both States, although members of the Roman Catholic Church outnumber all others.

In Austria the government is controlled by the Reichsrath, or Parliament, divided into an Upper and a Lower House. The Upper House consists of princes of the imperial family, noblemen, owners of great tracts of land and the higher clergy. Members of the Lower House are elected by direct popular vote, every male citizen more than twenty-four years old having the privilege of voting. The emperor's representative is the premier and the cabinet of ten members.

Public matters not under the jurisdiction of the parliament are dealt with by local governments; and each commune or district has its own governmental boards, elected by popular vote.

In Hungary the king's representative is the president of the Council and a cabinet of ten members. As in Austria, there is an Upper and a Lower House, composed of men of the same ranks, lacking princes of the royal house.

The vast area of these two countries contains more different peoples speaking different languages than are found anywhere else under one government. It is a common error to suppose that the people and the prevailing languages are chiefly German. This is true of the western provinces and of Vienna, the capital of Austria, but in the north a variety of languages is found. Near the Russian border Polish is spoken, near Italy the people speak Italian. Then there are the widely used Czech (Bohemian) and Slav tongues, spoken by many thousands; and in Hungary Magyar (pronounced "Mod'yer") is the common speech, though many dialects of other peoples also are heard.

In many of the towns, Germans and Bohemians, Magyars, Wallachs, and Saxons have lived for generations near one another, yet

each of these peoples retains its own language, customs, and costume.

The beginning of the history of Vienna, the brilliant capital of Austria, is found in records of the fifth century, when the barbaric Winden occupied the territory on which Vienna now stands. These people were driven out by the Romans, who in the course of years developed their early camp settlements into a city, which for a long time possessed no particular interest or importance. It was under

Austrian Infantry Receiving Their Morning Coffee

the control of a succession of dukes and archdukes, and twice was besieged by the Turks, the last siege being in 1716 in the Austro-Turkish war.

In the days of Napoleon's triumphs, his troops occupied Vienna in 1805-'06 and again in 1809; but after his downfall in 1815 the city was the scene of the gathering of the European Powers, in the Congress of Vienna, to decide what should be done with the fallen emperor.

Representatives of all nations visit Vienna, which has been aptly called "the crossroads of the Continent," and they may always be seen promenading or driving in Ring Street, a wide avenue in the heart of

the city, lined with beautiful trees and stately buildings, among the finest of which are the vast House of Parliament of white marble, the Court Theater, the sculptured marble of which portrays scenes from the greatest dramas of the world, and the famous University of Vienna, with its nine courts, stately halls, spacious reading-rooms and literary treasures.

Specially favored visitors at the imperial palace obtain a sight of rare treasures, which are under strict guard, as well they may be, since among them are the crown of Charlemagne; a wonderful diamond supposed to have been lost on a battle-field by Charles the Bold, which in later years was picked up by a soldier who sold it for two dollars as a bit of bright glass; and the silver cradle, studded with jewels, in which slept Napoleon II, the ill-fated infant son of Napoleon I and his second wife, the Austrian princess Maria Louisa.

The Cathedral of St. Stephen is one of the finest examples of early German architecture; its enormous bell was made from the cannon used by the Turks in one of their unsuccessful sieges (1683).

One of the most beautiful parks in Europe is the Prater of Vienna, which is formed by two branches of the Danube, inclosing nearly four thousand acres of land, planted with trees and lawns.

The capital of Hungary is no less gay and brilliant than that of Vienna. Budapest is composed of Buda, on the right bank of the Danube, and Pest on the left, the two being connected by several handsome bridges, one a suspension bridge 1,200 feet long. Up to the year 1873 the two divisions were independent cities. The situation of Buda is extremely picturesque. A lock a thousand feet high rises abruptly from the river and is crowned by an ancient citadel; a lower eminence forms the striking site for the royal palace; and the city circles in an amphitheatric form about the base. Pest is situated on a sandy plain, but its location on the river gives it great shipping advantages and large fleets of grain boats go from its shores.

Budapest is an important railway center, and from it different lines connect with nearly all parts of Europe.

Throughout this capital are evidences of wealth, culture, and comfort. Like the Viennese, the people appear happy and prosperous. Both countries are satisfied with their government, and regard their rulers with genuine patriotic affection.

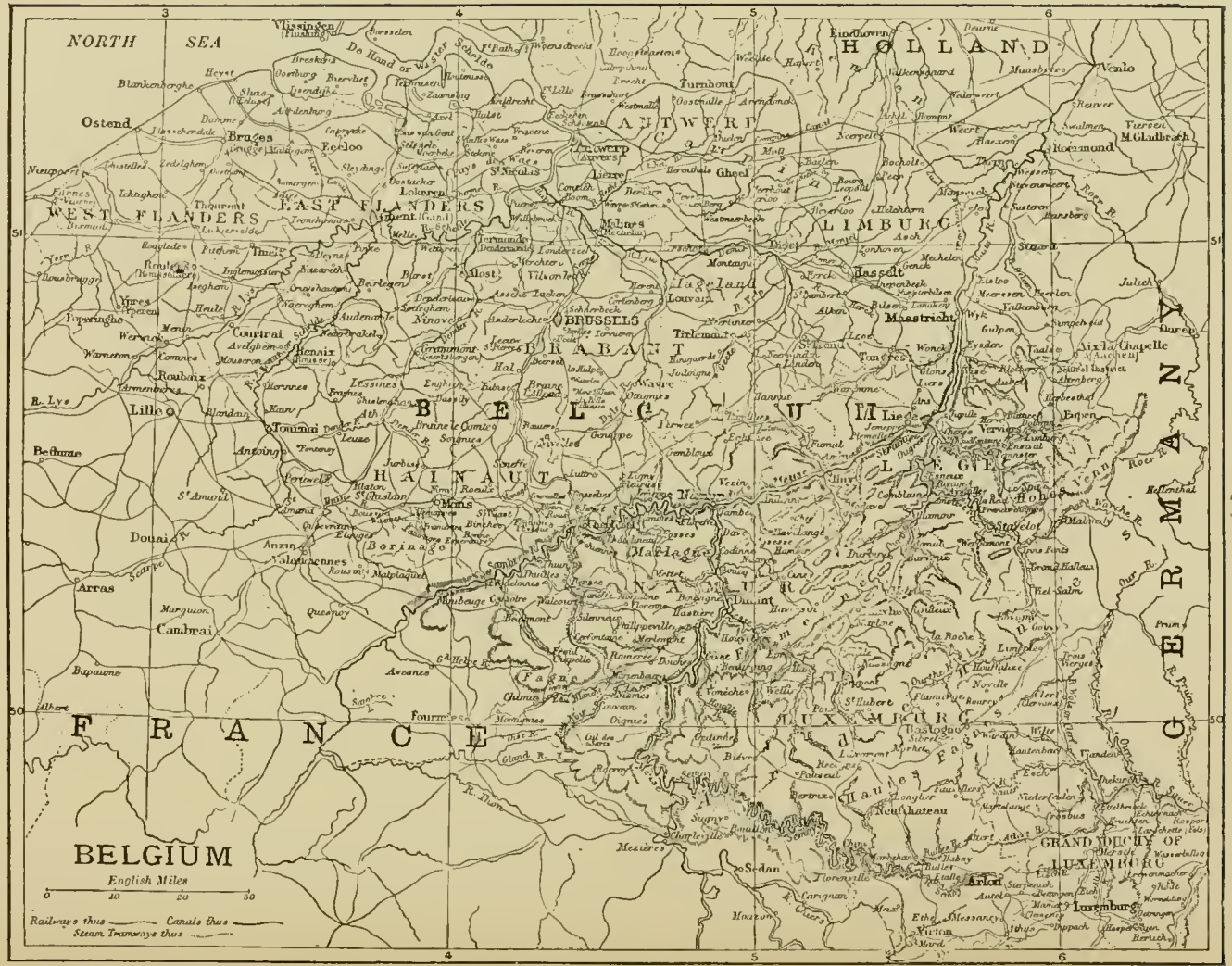
ALBERT I

King of the Belgians. Born in Brussels, April 8, 1875. Son of Philip, Count of Flanders. Succeeded His Uncle, Leopold II, December 23, 1909. Married October 2, 1900, Elizabeth, a Bavarian Duchess

Belgian Lancers, with Pennons Tattered by German Shells

Belgium.—The Kingdom of Belgium is one of the smaller countries of Europe, although the most densely populated on the Continent, having a population of 7,317,561 to a total area of 11,373 square miles, giving 636 inhabitants to a square mile. The whole country is only 165 miles long and 120 miles wide. On the east it is bounded by Germany, on the north by the North Sea and Holland, and on the west and south by France.

Belgium is comprised of nine provinces: Antwerp, Brabant, Flanders (East and West), Liège, Limburg, Luxemburg, Namur, and Hainaut. The people of these provinces belong to two different nationalities, the Flemish (German) and the Walloon (French), each division occupying its own part of the territory and speaking its own language. The Flemings (people of Flanders) use a form of that Low German of which the Dutch is a type, the main difference between the Flemish and the Dutch being in the spelling. The Wal-


NORTH SEA
HOLLAND
ANTWERP
LIMBURG
WEST FLANDERS
EAST FLANDERS
BRABANT
BRUSSELS
HAINAUT
NAMUR
LUXEMBURG
FRANCE
GERMANY
GRAND DUCHY OF LUXEMBURG
BELGIUM
English Miles
0 10 20 30
Railways thus
Canals thus
Steam Tramways thus

loons, a mixed Italic-Teutonic-Celtic people, descended from the ancient Gallic Belgæ, with a mingling of Roman elements, speak a peculiar *patois* of the French tongue, which is nearly related to the old *langue d'oïl.*

The name "Belgium" is derived from the Celtic people, the Belgæ, or Belgi, mentioned in Cæsar's "Commentaries," who occupied that region up to the sixth century. In the days of ancient Roman rule Belgium formed a part of Gaul, and later it became a possession of the Franks (the name assumed in the third century by a confederation of German tribes).

By the Treaty of Verdun, made in 843, the ancient provinces of Artois and Flanders were annexed to France. Belgium proper was dependent on the old German Empire, though ruled by Lothair, a grandson of Charlemagne. The Belgian people continued prosperous for several centuries, during which, as now, the little kingdom was always industrious and thriving. It passed under the rule of Spain in 1555, but in 1831, after centuries of successive Spanish, Austrian, French, and Dutch domination, Belgium threw off the rule of foreigners and established a monarchy of her own under King Leopold I, youngest son of Francis, Duke of Saxe-Coburg, since which date she has maintained that station among the kingdoms of Europe, the reigning monarch to-day (1914) being Albert I (acceded 1909), son of Leopold II.

In 1884-'85 Belgium extended her possessions by annexing the vast region in Central Africa known as the Congo Free State, from which she obtains immense wealth in ivory, rubber, gums, oil, coffee, tobacco, and fruits.

By the constitution of 1831, the government was made a constitutional, representative, and hereditary monarchy. The king governs through a council of ministers, or cabinet. The king, the Senate, and the Chamber of Representatives hold the power to legislate. Every citizen is guaranteed equality before the law, and every male citizen more than twenty-five years old, who has lived more than a year in the same place, is entitled to a vote; citizens more than thirty-five years old, who pay a house tax and are married, have the privilege of another vote. Such citizens as are more than twenty-five years old, who own real estate to the value of four hundred dollars, or a cor-

BRUSSELS

The Palais de Justice, the Most Conspicuous Building in Belgium's Capital

responding income from property, have also two votes. Citizens more than twenty-five years old that have received a diploma of the higher education or are engaged in professional work resulting from such education, have three votes, which is the highest number allowed. If a citizen fails to vote he is liable to punishment by law.

Some of the Forts at Namur

The Belgian Senate and the Chamber of Representatives meet every year in November and are in session for a period of forty days.

The provinces are divided into communes, numbering 2,629, and these districts largely govern their own business, under a burgomaster, a president, and a board of aldermen. Besides these councils for the communes, each province has its own council, all of which are elected in the same way.

At least one elementary school in every commune is required by law. The latest school statistics report 15,039 public schools, with a

total attendance of 1,450,310 pupils. Besides these, the Roman Catholic Church conducts a considerable number of schools. Belgium contains six commercial high schools, eighty-six schools of design, numerous schools of music, and a royal academy of fine arts. Brussels, Liège, Ghent, and Louvain each boasts a university.

The religion of the Belgians is almost wholly Roman Catholic. There are more than six thousand churches and chapels, and two thousand convents and monasteries. But the Government allows full religious liberty to all sects and creeds. The number of Protestants in the country is 30,000 and of Jews 15,000.

The country is almost equally divided in the pursuits of agriculture, manufacture, and commerce. Nearly all the land is well fitted for cultivation and the Belgians of the rural districts have so well availed themselves of their natural advantages that they have long been regarded as the model farmers of Europe. Vegetables thrive particularly well in this climate and soil, and much beet sugar is manufactured, the centers of this industry being in Louvain, Mons, St. Nicholas, Soignies, and the neighborhood of Liège.

Small as she is, Belgium has succeeded, thanks to the energy, the determination, and the thriftiness of her people, in ranking with the greatest manufacturing countries. In the commerce of the world, including imports and exports, she occupies fifth place, being exceeded only by the United Kingdom, Germany, the United States, and France.

If we consider the per capita ratio, the commerce of Belgium is proportionately larger by one third than that of the United Kingdom, her nearest competitor.

The two pillars of this prosperity are agriculture and industry. Belgium is, above all, a land of small farming. In the Flemish part of the country, the agricultural laborer devotes his leisure hours during the winter to weaving at home, while his wife and daughters manufacture lace, which is known all over the world. They keep one or two cows, a few goats, and raise a large number of rabbits intended for the London market. Belgian hares are a staple.

The great horticultural center of the kingdom has been from the sixteenth century the suburbs of Ghent. There are about three hundred large nurseries in that locality, besides a multitude of small horti-

culturists. Horticulture is practised largely also in the suburbs of Brussels, Bruges, Liège, Antwerp, and other cities.

Although part of the soil is exceedingly fertile, in the east it is somewhat sandy and marshy. The only mountains are some offshoots of the Ardennes in the south. The coast is forty miles long, and the whole country is well watered by the rivers Meuse and Scheldt, and their affluents, the Sambre, Ourthe, Werze, Lys, Den-

Belgian Machine-gun Drawn by Dog Team

der, and Rupel. There are no lakes of any considerable size, but many canals have been constructed.

In the Walloon part of the country, the city of Liège, the scene of the great battles and siege in the international conflict, is the center of great coal and iron industries, from which this heretofore fortunate nation has derived much of its wealth. The coal-fields cover an area of five hundred square miles, and the product averages about 24,000,000 tons a year, valued at more than $60,000,000. The shafts of some of the mines are three thousand six hundred feet deep in the

vertical and the comparative thinness of the seams and the presence of fire-damp preclude the use of explosives.

Among the more important industries are iron and steel and glass. Liège is one of the centers of the iron industry; Charleroi is another.

One of the more important establishments, employing fifteen thousand men, is the John Cockerill works, near Liège, where coal-mining, iron and steel metallurgy, rail and structural steel manufacturing, foundry and machine shops, and even shipbuilding, are represented.

There is no country in the world that is not a customer of Bel-

Forts at Dinant

gium for window and plate glass. The factories are in Hainaut, and especially in the vicinity of Charleroi. In glassware and crystal the annual production exceeds 130,000,000 pieces. The value of exports of glass products is $10,000,000 a year.

All manufacturing and mining industries are under the control of special departments, and the diamond-cutting industry is very important, most of the finest grades of diamonds being cut in Antwerp, which ranks all other European cities as a diamond market, its only rival being Amsterdam.

The making of lace employs about 45,000 persons, mostly women. Other industries also are in a flourishing condition, and all the world knows of the fine linens and cloths manufactured in different parts of the country.

Despite Belgium's smallness, she ranks fifth among the nations in

commerce and industries, and is one of the richest countries per capita in the world. The total imports are reported in the last census as amounting in value to $900,000,000 in round numbers, and her total exports to $700,000,000. The three important Belgian ports are Antwerp, Ghent, and Ostend.

Previous to the outbreak of the present international conflict

Belgian Infantry on the Firing-line at Tirlemont

the Belgian military law (reorganized on the basis of personal service in 1909) fixed the terms of service as fifteen months for infantry, fortress, and artillery; twenty-four months for cavalry and horse artillery, and the period of service up to thirty-six months, according to station.

The German army, invading Belgium and the adjoining Dutch Province of Limburg, is traveling in the print of olden wars; it is wading through wheat-fields that grow deep with many waterings of blood. No land on earth has been so prolific of battle-fields; for modern Belgium, the older Flanders, lies and always has lain between the greatest nations of Europe. Partly because of its geographical loca-

SCENE ON THE MEUSE, SHOWING THE BEAUTIFUL COUNTRY RAVAGED BY THE WAR

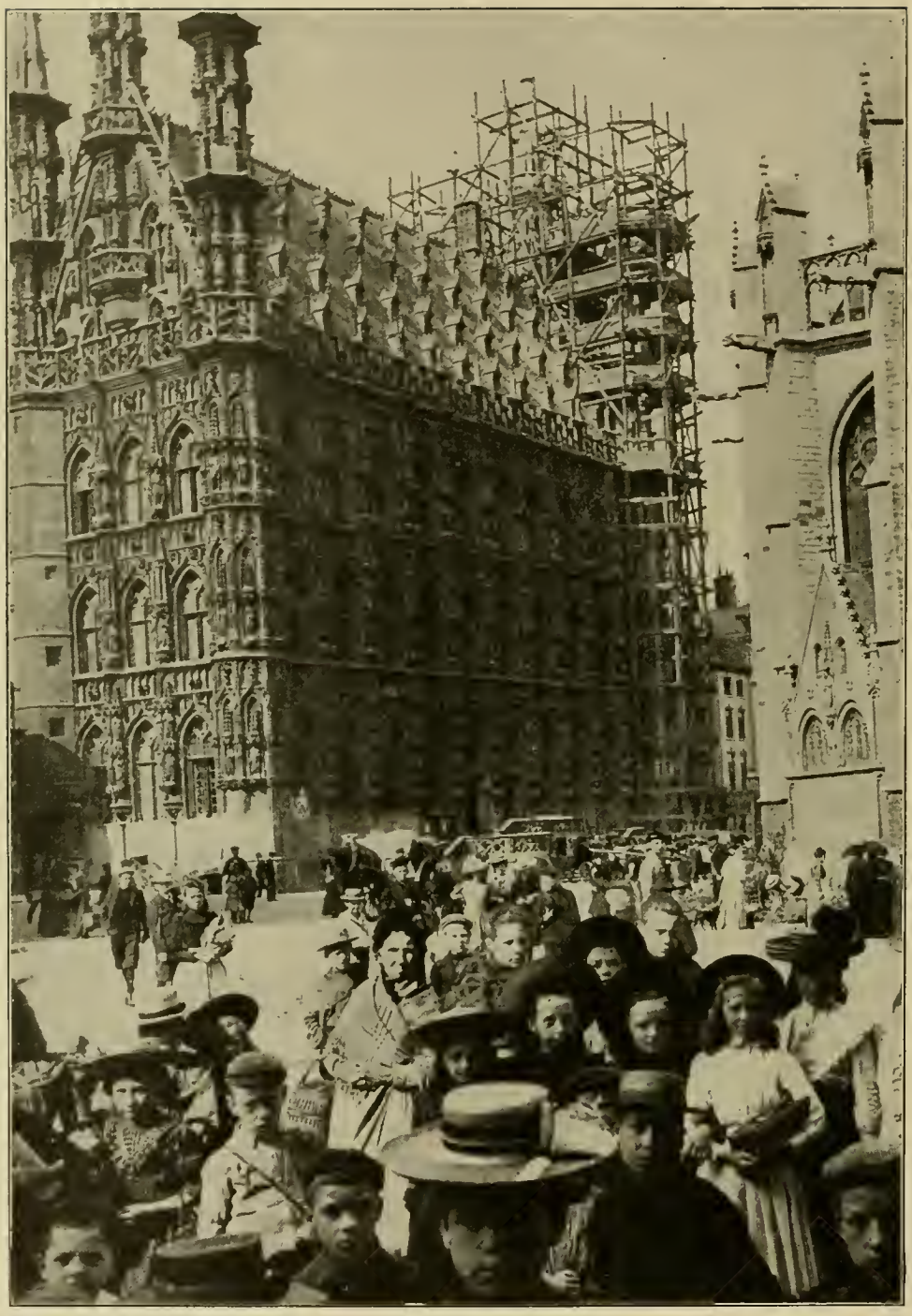
tion, partly because the topography of the country lends itself ideally to purposes of defense, Belgium has seemed to be fixed upon by military men as a place in which to fight their battles; and when these nations fight, this pleasant, peaceful, green, and busy land is crushed as between the upper and nether millstones.

Historically, it all began with Cæsar; but who can tell how many unchronicled and unremembered battles of savage warriors were fought in the deep and mysterious forests before the dawn of civiliza-

Dynamited Bridge Across the Meuse, at Vise, Belgium

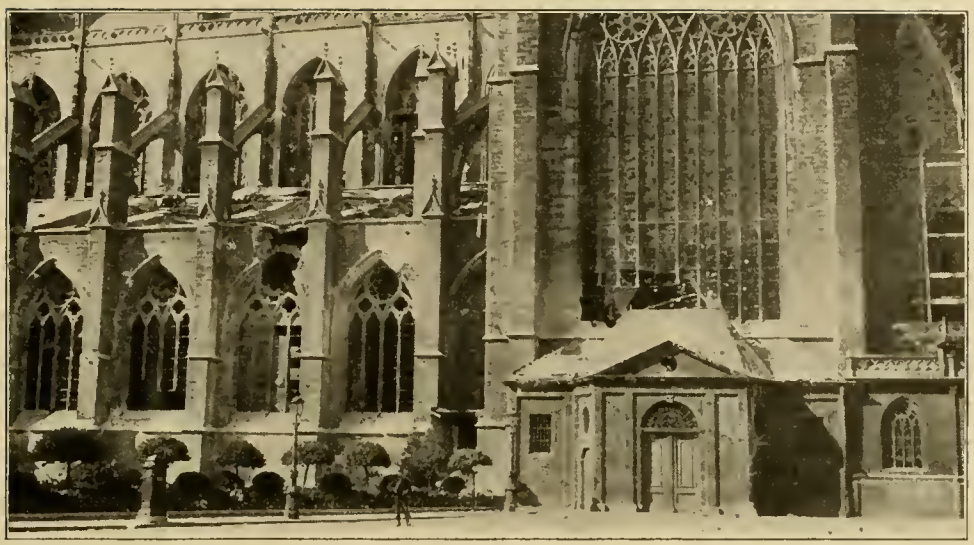
tion? Cæsar, at any rate, found the Belgæ already "the bravest of all the people of Gaul"; and every schoolboy has learned with what bitter pains the Roman legions overcame the Nervii on this very ground. In later ages the struggles of east and west were fought out here. Courtray witnessed the awful slaughter of the French when, in 1302, the Flemings hurled them, horse and men, into a canal and butchered them there without mercy.

No less than six times the town of Maastricht, in Limburg, close by Liège, in Belgium, has been the scene of desperate battles—in 1579, in 1632, in 1673, in 1748, in 1794—down to 1830, when the Dutch fought with the Belgians there. Namur, a little farther south, which began its recorded battlings when the Aduatici withstood Cæsar



LOUVAIN—THE TOWN HALL

This Fine Gem of Medieval Art Fortunately Escaped Destruction When the Town Was Fired by the Germans



Part of Malines Cathedral, Riddled by German Shells

there, has seen battles between the forces of almost all the neighboring powers. Roulers, Hasselt, Turnhout, Wavre, Arlon, Dinant—these and other places have listened to the clash of arms through the centuries, and many times known the welter of blood.

Last of all, in 1815, the great and final struggle between the warring power of Napoleon and the allied powers of Europe, under Wellington and Blücher, was fought out on this "dark and bloody ground" —at Wavre, at Quatre Bras, at Waterloo. More souls than all those who march with the invading Germans, or the defending Belgians, British, or French, will swing across these historic fields; the wraiths of ancient thousands will envelop them.

Strangest of all things is the fact that, in this gentler age of the world, the deep-growing corn of the Belgian fields will again be trampled by the feet of armed and fighting men, and the red currents will once more fertilize the dark soil. In this twentieth century of higher enlightenment the "old, unhappy, far-off things and battles long ago" are called into a new and still more terrible being by the ambitions of men and nations.

In 1914 it is the valiant Belgians themselves who are engaged in the struggle. Whatever discussion there may be of the rights or wrongs of the present war, certainly none can charge Belgium with

even an intimation of wrong. She is stoutly defending her territory against unwarranted and unjust invasion by an armed power which was one of those guaranteeing her against such invasion.

A much traveled route from England to Belgium is by way of Dover to Calais, on the French coast, thence a few miles north to Ostend, on the North Sea. No watering-place in the world is more

The War-ravaged Valley of the Meuse

celebrated than this fashionable resort. Its charms are like those of Brighton in England, Trouville in France, and Newport in the United States; but in addition the wide variety in the type of its visitors renders it a sort of human kaleidoscope-show of all nations, representations of which may be seen every evening at the Kursaal, a concert-hall and ballroom, and every day while strolling on the Digue, a stone dike a mile long and twenty-five feet high.

Half an hour's railway journey from Ostend brings the traveler to Bruges, in the Province of West Flanders, eight miles from the

North Sea. Some of Belgium's old cities have awakened and joined the march of the world's progress, but ancient Bruges remains ever the same. The town was once a great manufacturing center, but quarrels between her rulers and the manufacturers led to the downfall of prosperity. In its best days it belonged to the Hanseatic League, a confederation of cities of northern Germany and adjoin-

British Marines Marching Through Ostend

ing countries organized in 1241 for the promotion of commerce by sea and land, and for their protection against pirates, robbers, and hostile governments. But the glory of the past has not vanished from the celebrated shrines of old Bruges. The cathedral, built in the twelfth century, is a beautiful structure, and the Church of Notre Dame is filled with romantic associations. In the middle of the city stands the building now used as a market and a town-hall. Its wonderful tower, three hundred and fifty feet high, has a belfry in which hangs a chime of bells, made famous by our poet Longfellow.

When one visits the city of Ghent he is on the scene of many a desperate fight of the Middle Ages, though in recent years it has been one of the most peaceful and prosperous of towns, with numerous canals traversing it in every direction, giving it an appearance that suggests an unromantic Venice. Ghent is especially interesting to Americans for the reason that, at the close of the War of 1812-'14 between the United States and Great Britain, the treaty of peace was negotiated and signed there.

The very ancient city of Antwerp, the chief port of the country, is situated on the Scheldt River, and is one of the busiest towns in all the busy land. Approaching it by water, one sees first the superb spire of Notre Dame Cathedral, begun in 1422. It contains the most magnificent set of chimes in the world, composed of ninety-nine bells, the smallest of which is the size of a tea-bell and the largest weighs eight tons. The carving of the spire, 402 feet high, is a marvel of beauty, the designs in the stone looking like delicate lace or embroidery.

Historians say that Brussels, the gay capital city, was founded in the seventh century, on an island in the river Senne, and that its assemblage of huts was called the *brocksles* ("marsh dwellings"), from which name the word Brussels was derived. Its growth was slow until after the twelfth century; when the new monarchy was formed it became the seat of government and the royal residence.

There are several fine palaces in the capital. King Albert has one overlooking the park and another in the suburb of Lacken. The former palace of the Prince of Orange is now the Museum of the Royal Academy of Letters, Arts, and Sciences.

Few persons visit the capital without making a pilgrimage to the historic battle-field of Waterloo, fought on June 18, 1815. The surroundings are not especially impressive or picturesque, and when the traveler has ascended the Lion's Mound, seen the relics in the Museum, and gone over the farm lands on which was waged the great battle that marked the downfall of Napoleon I, he has seen all there is to see. The Mound is an odd structure erected by the Belgians in memory of their countrymen that lent aid in the battle against Napoleon's army.

The field still keeps its outlines. At the left is Planchenoit,

where the Duke of Wellington watched to see the smoke of the Prussian guns. Opposite is the slope down which D'Erlon's troops marched to the attack on La Haye Sainte; and on the left also is the ground over which the Life Guards and Enniskillens and the Scots Greys galloped in their great charge. At the right is Hougomont, the orchard-walls of which still show the loopholes made by the Guards. Victors and vanquished passed away long ago, and from that day, when Napoleon's Old Guard broke on the slopes of Mont St. Jean, French and British soldiers never have met as enemies on

Belgian Infantry Resting Near Liege

the field of battle. Now they meet again, not as enemies, but as friends and allies to aid Belgium in resisting the invasion of her territory by the armed forces of the German Empire.

The only colonial possession of Belgium is the Belgian Congo, founded in 1882 by Leopold II as the Congo Independent State, and annexed to Belgium in 1907. Its area is estimated at 909,654 square miles and its population at 15,000,000. Its chief product is rubber, which it exported in 1912 to the value of over $17,500,000. Ivory, copal and gold are also important products. The seat of government is at Boma.

RAYMOND POINCARÉ

President of the French Republic Since January 17, 1913. Born in Bar-le-Duc, August 20, 1860. Represented the Department of the Meuse in the Senate. Was Minister of Public Education in 1893 and 1895; Minister of Finance, 1894 and 1906; and Premier of France, 1911-1913

Trumpeters in Advance of a French Regiment

France.—France gives much character to the map. If it were not for the wedge called Brittany that projects into the Atlantic, the country would be almost a square. France is separated from her neighbors by strong natural boundaries. On the west the coast is washed by the Bay of Biscay and the Atlantic; on the north the English Channel and the Strait of Dover guard her from Great Britain; on the south the high and rugged Pyrenees form a bulwark against Spain; and beyond them the Mediterranean carries along the line of natural defense. The southeast is protected from Italy by the Alps; and the Jura and the Vosges form a snowy wall cutting off Switzerland. The boundary line on the side of Belgium is the only one that nature has left unprotected.

The superficial area of France is estimated at 207,054 square miles—smaller than Texas. The coast line is 3,250 miles long. The department of Seine-Inférieure, from Havre to Dieppe, shows high chalk cliffs like those of the southern shore of England. The irregular western coast, from Pointe Saint-Mathieu at the end of Brittany to the Gironde, is broken by many bays and the mouths of the Loire

FRANCE
ENGLAND
ENGLISH CHANNEL
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAY OF BISCAY
BELGIUM
PRUSSIA
GERMANY
SWITZERLAND
ITALY
SPAIN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Gulf of Lions
CORSICA
English Miles

and Gironde, while the low, sandy shore of La Vendée is fringed with small islands. South of the Gironde and the Garonne stretch sand dunes and behind them the celebrated "Landes," or marshes.

The Pyrenees range is two hundred and seventy miles long and varies in width from ninety miles to about twenty-five at the Mediterranean extremity. The formation is an almost continuous knife-ridged *arête,* broken by elevated passes (locally called *ports*). The highest peaks are on the great transverse ridges at right angles to the

President Poincaré Inspecting a Heavy Siege-gun

chain. The transverse valleys between these vast buttresses form the most characteristic feature of the Pyrenees. The great gullies, called *cirques,* running into the chain and inclosed on all sides by towering crags, are a phenomenon almost peculiar to this chain. Numerous transverse valleys form deep ravines, at the bottom of which gush the mountain-torrents called *gaves.* Wild and wonderful, with sharp snowy peaks, and strange valleys thrown off like the fronds of a fern on both sides of the chain, the Pyrenees form a great contrast to the Alps. The limit of perpetual snow is nine thousand feet, about two thousand feet higher than that of the Alps; and the limit of vegetation is about five hundred feet higher than that of the Alps. The

FRENCH INFANTRY ADVANCING IN HEAVY MARCHING ORDER

slopes are magnificently wooded with forests of box, fir, pine, and, on the lower elevations, evergreen oak. In the Pyrenees-Orientales Mont Canigou (9,137 feet), in an offshoot of the Pyrenees, called Corbières, stands out from the plain with great distinctness, remarkable as showing its zones of vegetation: first, orange, aloe, oleander, olive, and pomegranate; then, the vine; then, the chestnut, rhododendron, pine, and birch; and lastly, the stunted junipers reaching to the summit.

On the south the Mediterranean coast, sweeping boldly from the Pyrenees to the Maritime Alps, is very rocky on the extreme west, but becomes low and sandy, enclosing several lagoons. About the middle of the curve the Rhône enters the sea by various mouths. East of this delta the coast is broken by capes and promontories which leave between them and the shore a narrow riviera, broken by the harbors of Marseilles, Toulon, Cannes, and Nice. A few islands mark the line of the ancient coast.

On the eastern boundary are the Alps of Provence; the Alps of Dauphiné, the Maritime Alps, the Cottian Alps, the mountains of Maurienne, containing Mont Cenis, pierced by the first tunnel (opened in 1871); the Graian Alps, and the Pennine Alps, famous for Mont Blanc (15,782 feet), the highest mountain in Europe. Here is the celebrated Chamouni and the Hospice of St. Bernard. Interrupted by the valley of the Rhône, the line of mountains is continued by the Jura range, a chain extending between the Rhine and the Rhône from northeast to southwest. Gradually they bend to the east and run into Switzerland, reaching their greatest height there and on the French frontier. Politically the Jura is French and Swiss, but at its northern extremity it takes in a small piece of Alsace.

The northern face of the Jura dominates the famous Trouée, or trench, of Belfort. This is one of the great geographical centers of Europe, for here routes run southwest into France and to the Mediterranean; southeast to the Danube basin and the Black Sea; and north down the Rhine to the North Sea. The great central plateau of the Jura is, therefore, a network of roads and railways. It is a place of vast strategical importance, and is strongly fortified. On the other side the Jura overhangs the Trouée of the Black Forest towns on the Rhine, through which Switzerland may be gained. On

this slope are two openings—the Valley of the Doubs, which belongs to France, and the valley of the Birs, which belongs to Switzerland. Belfort is the military center of this district, Mülhäusen the industrial, and Basel the commercial.

Most of the neighboring country was held by the House of Savoy until it was gradually annexed by Bern. The Chasseron (5,286 feet) is the central point, commanding the two great railways that unite Neuchâtel and Pontarlier. Dôle is the only important town of the central Saône basin. South of the Val d'Orbe the rocky wall uplifts the highest peaks of the Jura. Here, too, run the great roads of the Col de St. Cergnes (4,159 feet) and the Col de la Fancille (4,314 feet), the latter leading through the Vallée des Dappes, which was divided between France and Switzerland after many negotiations.

On the south the Jura stretches out toward the great mass of the Dauphiné Alps; and, as it commands the routes from France into Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, it has always been of extreme historic importance. The three chief rivers of the Jura—the Doubs, the Loue and the Ain—flow through deep gorges. On the plateau between the Doubs and the Aar, several picturesque towns are situated, such as Locle and La Chaux de Fonds, where watchmaking is the chief industry. This is also the chief occupation of Besançon, which is situated on the plateau north of the Loue. South of Besançon lies the Pontarlier Plateau, of immense strategical and commercial importance, because here roads converge from every direction. The keys to this important plateau are the Fort de Joux (east), under the walls of which meet the two railway lines from Neuchâtel and Salins (west), the meeting-place of the routes from the Col de la Fancille, from Besançon and from the French plain.

On the southern edge of the Pontarlier Plateau are two points of great military importance: Nozeroy and Champagnole. The latter is especially important, because the road that leads from Champagnole to Geneva traverses the chief valleys that run down into the South Jura and thus command the southern routes. It also commands those from Geneva by St. Cergnes and the Col de la Fancille and a branch road from Jougne, running beside the river Orbe. The Fort of Les Rousses, near the foot of the Dôle, serves as an advanced post to Champagnole, just as the Fort de Joux serves Pontarlier.

Far more complicated is the southern part of the Jura, intersected also by a network of roads—the valleys of the Valouse and of the Surand cut through the plateaus west of the Ain, the chief river. The Ain receives three tributaries from the east: the Albarine; the Oignon, which drains the lake of Nantua (the town of Nantua is noted for its silks and combs), and the Bienne, which flows from the foot of Les Rousses by St. Claude, the industrial center of the South Jura, noted for its toys made from the boxwood so plentiful in this

A Company of French Infantry

neighborhood. Watches and spectacles are made at Morez, and gems are cut at Septmoncel.

Important railways traverse the gorges or *cluses* of Nantua and Virieu and make the saying even truer than of old that the keys of the South Jura are Lyons and Geneva. The gorges, however, can be turned by following the Rhône in its great bend to the south.

The eastern and western faces are pierced by many transverse gorges, or "cluses," by which access is gained to the great central plateau of Pontarlier. On the east side Neuchâtel commands all the routes on the west side. Besançon is the chief military center, and, moreover, has to defend the route from Belfort down the Doubs. This, in medieval times, was a part of the great duchy of Burgundy,

Réné Viviani, Premier of France

General Pau, Commanding in Alsace

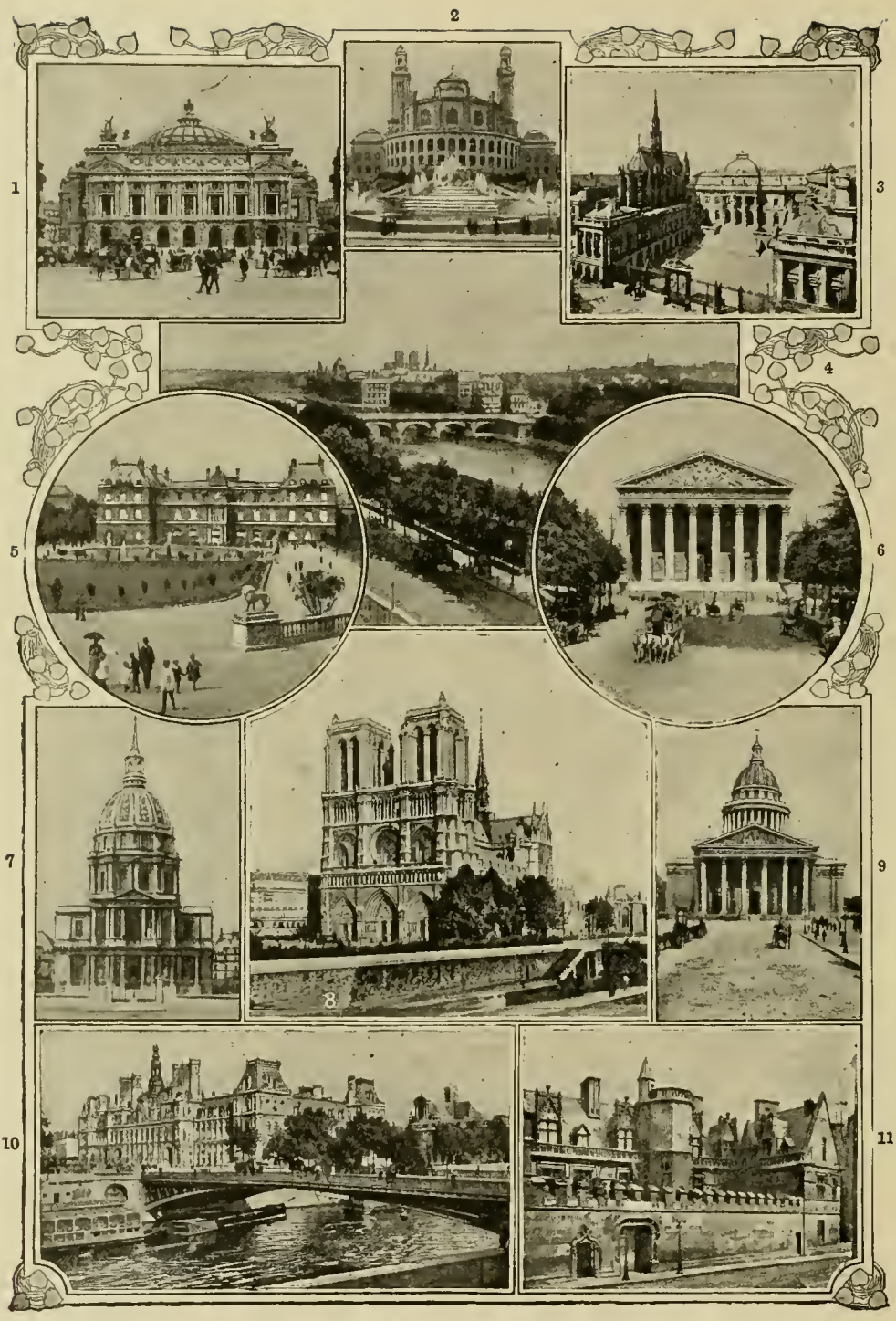
General Joffre, Commander-in-chief

General Gallieni, Military Governor of Paris

which rivaled the Crown of France, until its power was broken at the battle of Nancy, where Charles the Bold fell in 1477. Lorraine was then subjugated.

The gap at Belfort separates the Jura from the Vosges, now a part of the French frontier. Their eastern slopes front upon Alsace, and their southern portion from the Ballon d'Alsace to Mont Donon, forms the boundary between France and Germany. There is much similarity between the Vosges and the corresponding range of the Black Forest on the other side of the Rhine. Both have a steep fall to the Rhine, and both decline gently on the other side. There are four sections—the Grandes Vosges, the Central Vosges, the Lower Vosges, and the Hardt. The rounded summits of the Grandes Vosges are called "ballons." The Departments of Vosges and Haute Saône are divided from Alsace and Belfort by the Ballon d'Alsace, or St. Maurice (4,100 feet). Northward the Grandes Vosges extend, averaging 3,000 feet, and reach their greatest height in the Ballon de Guebwiller, or Soultz (4,680 feet). Their ramifications are the hills of Belfort, the Monts Faucilles. The railway from Paris to Strassburg, and the Rhine-and-Marne Canal traverse the Col de Saverne (1,085 feet). The Lower Vosges forms a plateau, which is defended by the fort of Bitchie. The Hardt is sterile, and is covered with heath and brushwood. Through deep ravines railways run from Deux-Ponts to Landau and from Kaiserslantern to Spires and Worms.

On the eastern slope the Ill is the chief river, which has a rapid fall, but is not an abundant stream. On the Lorraine side rise the Moselle, to enter the Rhine, and the Meurthe and the Saar, to enter the Moselle. The scenery is both noble and charming. There are high peaks with wooded slopes, moraines, and boulders; numerous lakes surrounded by pines, maples, and beeches; green meadows, where hundreds of cows with tinkling bells graze peacefully; and quaint houses and churches, many of great age. Extended views of the Rhine Valley and the Black Forest, with the distant snowy Alps for a frame, add to the traveler's delight and make him sympathize with the intense love of the natives for their beautiful country. On the Alsatian side the mountain slopes are dotted with ancient castles, many of which are in ruins, and all of which are noted for their romantic legends and historical stories.



NOTABLE BUILDINGS IN PARIS

1. Opera House. 2. Trocadéro. 3. Palais de Justice. 4. Ile de la Cité. 5. Luxemburg. 6. Madeleine. 7. Invalides. 8. Notre Dame. 9. Pantheon. 10. Hotel de Ville. 11. Musée de Cluny

On the northeast boundary lie Luxemburg, Namur, Hainault, and West Flanders. The important towns near the borders are Nancy, Metz, Sedan, and Lille. Calais, in the Pas de Calais, is only twenty-six miles from Dover in England.

Calais entered the Hanseatic League in 1303, and, in 1347, after a heroic defense, was taken by Edward III. Edward blockaded the port and starved the town into surrender. Calais then remained in the hands of the English for two hundred years, during which it became an important mart for English traders. In 1558 the Duke of Guise with 30,000 men expelled the English, after a siege of seven days. Queen Mary felt its loss so keenly that she said after her death the name Calais would be found engraven on her heart. In 1561 Mary Stuart sailed from Calais to take the Scottish crown, bidding farewell in a touching poem to its receding shore. The Spaniards captured Calais in 1596; but the Treaty of Verdun (1598) restored it permanently to France. Through Calais the English troops passed during the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453), when Crecy (1346), Poitiers (1356), and Agincourt (1415) were won by the English, and during the siege of Orléans, when Jeanne d'Arc was put to death in Rouen (1431).

The quick eye of a bird viewing France would see a country remarkable for its beautiful and diversified scenery. *La belle France* consists of mountainous districts with high peaks crowned with snow, thick forests abounding in rare plants, noble rivers flowing through deep gorges; dashing waterfalls; coasts with jagged rocks wreathed in violet mists and encircled by seagulls; sandy shores; low plains with long lines of poplars; smiling meadow lands sprinkled with ancient abbeys; magnificent cathedrals; exquisite *châteaux* of the Renaissance period; interesting old towns that transport the dreamer into the Middle Ages; and tiny villages, where the life is simple and the architecture quaint.

No country offers more wonderful architecture. Ruskin called the abbey church of St. Ouen, in Rouen, "the most beautiful specimen of Gothic in the world," and critics agree that Chartres, with its marvelous glass, is the most glorious of all cathedrals. The cathedrals of Amiens, Beauvais, Bayeux, Notre Dame of Paris, Notre Dame of Rheims, Laon, Sens, Tours, and Rouen, the Palais de Jus-

tice in Rouen, the house of Jacques Cœur in Bourges, the *châteaux* of Chantilly, Chinon, Loches, Amboise, Blois, and Fontainebleau, and the Papal Palace at Avignon head a long list of architectural gems from the Twelfth Century to the Renaissance. Beautiful forests cover about one sixth of the country. Lower Normandy contains several of considerable extent. Compiègne, near Pierrefonds, was the favorite hunting-ground of the kings of France and is often mentioned by Froissart. The Merovingian kings had a palace here. Fontainebleau, forty-five miles from Paris, covering sixty-five square

A Regiment of French Zouaves

miles, is famous; and one of its villages, Barbizon, has given its name to a school of landscape painters. A larger forest lies north of the Loire, near Orléans; and Ardennes and the tract bordering Switzerland abound in dense woods. The scenery of the Cévennes is full of interest and beauty.

The Ardennes have been a bulwark of defense, invasions having come east through the valley of the Moselle, and west through that of the Oise and by the plains of Flanders.

France offers noble and beautiful river scenery. The Rhône, in its course of five hundred miles, discharging the snows of St. Gothard into the Gulf of Lyons, has a curious course. It is joined by the Saône at Lyons and ends in a fan-like delta; the winding course of the Seine, which, with its many historic bridges, is one of the attrac-

tions of Paris, enters the English Channel by a wide estuary on which stand the ports of Honfleur, Harfleur, and Havre. The Garonne, rising in the Pyrenees, flows past Toulouse and into the Bay of Biscay after leaving Bordeaux. Perhaps of all French rivers the Loire is the most famous. It is the longest (620 miles), and in its course from the Cévennes to the Bay of Biscay it flows through Touraine, "the garden of France." The Loire and its tributaries are famous for their ancient castles and modern mansions. At Tours the scenery is entrancing. The riverside meadows, of brightest emerald, are broken by trees and winding roads; vineyards spread out a sea of green and purple grapes; tiny cottages stand in tiny gardens bright with flowers and ripening peaches—a quiet, peaceful, sylvan landscape. Blois, with its noble castle, is famed for its lilacs. The valley of the Marne with its pretty rivers and winding canals, undulating pastures, wheatfields, woods, vineyards, orchards, gardens, and villages has furnished many subjects for the pictures of Corot, Millet, and Daubigny.

Traveling northwest, we pass Dieppe; Maintes; the ruins of Richard Cœur de Lion's Château Gaillard; Rouen, with its glorious Gothic buildings; Fécamp; Le Havre; Anet; Evreux; Falaise; Caen; Bayeux; Cherbourg; St. Malo; Chartres; Le Mans; Rennes; Morleix; Brest; Dinan; Quimper; Carnac, with its curious stones of Druidical times; picturesque Mont St. Michel perched on its rock; Douarenez, famed for its legends of Tristan and Yseult and also its more prosaic sardines; and Ploërmel, near which is the Forest of Broceliande, with the magic fountain of Baranton, the *Vol sans retour,* and the Tomb of Merlin. Thus Normandy and Brittany present much to charm the lover of scenery and romance.

Southwest we enter the valley of the Loire with the castles of Blois, Amboise, Loches, Chinon, Saumur, Chambord and Chenonceaux; pass Orléans, Angers, Nantes, Bordeaux, La Rochelle, Limoges, Toulouse, Carcassonne, Narbonne, Perpignan, Aigues-Mortes (the most perfect circle of medieval fortifications in existence, built by Philip the Bold in the Fourteenth Century); and finally reach Pau, Lourdes, and Biarritz in the Basse-Pyrenees.

Northeast lies the valley of the Marne; Nancy, the ancient capital of the Duchy of Lorraine, associated with Charles the Bold; Laon,

SCENE IN BORDEAUX

As the German invasion Approached Paris the Seat of Government Was Temporarily Moved to Bordeaux

with its many-towered cathedral on the rock; Rheims, with its glorious Notre Dame, where Jeanne d'Arc crowned Charles VII, and Domrémy on the Meuse, where her little house is still standing; Lille, once the capital of French Flanders, which capitulated to Louis XIV in 1667; Arras, the capital of Artois, famed for its tapestry; Sedan, with its battle-field of 1870; Douai; Cambrai; the lovely valleys of the Moselle; and the Rhine country so delightfully described by Victor Hugo.

From Paris on the Seine we pass southeast to Fontainebleau; Moret; Sens; Dijon; Citeaux; Cluny; Lyons; Nemours; Bourges; beautiful Puy de Dome, the most conspicuous of seventy volcanic cones that rise from the high upland; Dôle; Besançon; Nantua; Bellegarde, where the Rhône suddenly disappears; Chamouni and Mont Blanc; Aix-les-Bains; Le Grande Chartreuse; Avignon, the old seat of the Papacy; Tarascon; Arles, with its forum; Nîmes; Grenoble in the high Alps; Aix, the ancient capital of Provence; Toulon, Marseilles, France's greatest seaport; Hyères; Cannes, and Nice.

Prior to 1790 France was divided into thirty-two great and eight small military provinces. The old divisions are so important to the lover of literature and the historian that the American and English reader thinks of France by these more descriptive names rather than by those of the modern departments.

After Charles Martel stopped at Tours (732), the invasion of the Arabs, who threatened to overrun Europe, he extended the frontier of the Frankish power in the north and east by the conquest of Frisia, Saxony, and Swabia. His successor, Pepin (741-768), entered Italy, broke the Lombard power, which threatened to destroy the independence of the papacy; and granted to the pope territories that formed the beginning of the Papal States. Pepin's son, Charlemagne (768-814), brought Germany into the circle of European civilization. With him the construction of the modern world began. On the appeal of the pope he conquered Lombardy, broke the Saxon power, and incorporated it in his dominions. He also conquered Bavaria, the Slavs on the Baltic, the Hungarians, and the Mohammedans of Spain. On Christmas Day, 800, Leo III crowned him in St. Peter's, Rome, and thereafter Charlemagne styled himself "Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire." In 843 the Treaty of Verdun parti-

tioned Charlemagne's great empire among three claimants. Charles had the west (now France); and Louis, the east (now Germany). Between them was the middle kingdom of Lotharingia (Lorraine).

In 885 the Northmen began to make inroads. They took Rouen, Bordeaux and Aix-la-Chapelle. The monarchy gradually decayed

French Infantry Blocking a Road to Paris

and the feudal powers of the great nobles developed. In 987 a member of one of these families, Hugh Capet, seized the throne (987-996) and began a new dynasty.

Louis VI (1108-1137) united the Duchy of Aquitaine to the crown and strengthened the monarchy against the feudal nobles; but a blow was inflicted on the monarchy by Louis VII (1137-1180) when he divorced his wife, Eleanor of Aquitaine, and allowed her to marry Henry II of England. By this marriage England became possessor of many French provinces.

Philip Augustus (1180-1223), one of the chief founders of the French monarchy, by diplomacy and hard fighting at the Battle of Bouvines (1214), expelled the English from Brittany, Normandy, Maine, Anjou, Touraine, and most of Poitou.

In the reign of Louis IX (1226-1270) smiling Languedoc, which

Members of the 19th Algerian Corps—France's Terrible "Turcos"

had been devastated by the Albigensian wars, was annexed to the crown of France.

In the reign of Philip III "the Bold" (1270-1285) the rich district of Flanders was added in 1300; but the Flemings rebelled and gained a victory at Courtrai, known as "the battle of the spurs." Then Philip had to abandon the lands beyond the Scheldt. After the death in quick succession of Philip's three sons, who all died without male heirs, Edward III of England claimed the throne as the son of Isabella, daughter of Philip IV. This occasioned the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453).

FRENCH LANCERS ON THE MARCH

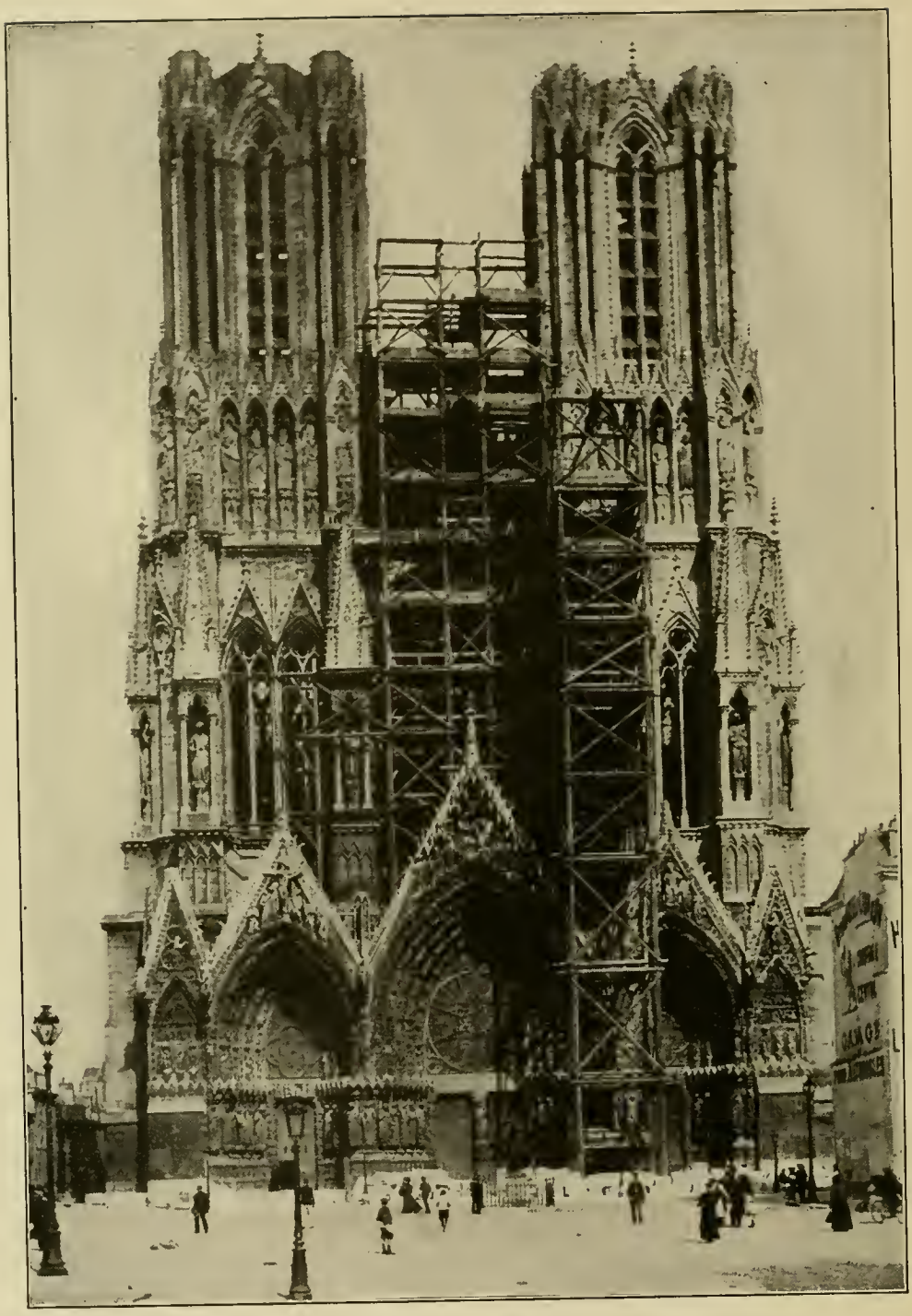
The French Are Particularly Proud of Their Fine Cavalry and Artillery

After France had been torn by internal strife between the Burgundians and the Orleanists, and Henry IV of England had won Agincourt (1415), France became mistress of her own dominions. The English were driven out of Normandy and Bordeaux; and in

French Motor-trucks for the Transport of Aëroplanes

1439 the States-General granted to the monarchy a tax to maintain a standing army.

Louis XI (1461-1483) crushed the great nobles and strengthened the monarchy. The chief incident of his reign was the long struggle with Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, whose great possessions made him ruler over a district corresponding to the old Kingdom of Lotharingia as defined by the Treaty of Verdun. The Burgundian power was broken in its attack on the Swiss Confederacy, and Charles the Bold fell on the battle-field of Nancy (1477).



RHEIMS CATHEDRAL

Wrecked by German shells. The scaffolding shown in the picture was standing at the time of the bombardment and took fire

Charles VIII (1483-1498), marrying Anne of Brittany, brought that province under the crown in 1491. Francis I raised the prestige of France in the Battle of Marignano (1515). Calais was lost to the Spanish in 1596 and was recovered in 1598. The religious wars, which lasted thirty years, began in 1562. With Henry of Navarre (1594-1610) the Bourbon dynasty began. He was successful in beating down the power of the nobility, aided by his minister, Sully. His great act was the Edict of Nantes (1598) granting religious toleration to the Huguenots.

During the reign of Louis XIII (1610-1643), his minister, Richelieu, pursued his aims by centralizing and unifying all France under the crown and by establishing France as the dominant power in Europe, fighting hard against the allied houses of Spain and Austria. The magnificent reign of Louis XIV (1643-1715) was largely the result of the Cardinal's action. As a result of Richelieu's policy, France became engaged in two wars against Austria and Spain. Mazarin proved to be a worthy successor to Richelieu. Condé broke the Spanish infantry in the great battle of Rocroy in the Low Countries (1643) and gained a victory at Freiburg on the Upper Rhine (1644). Turenne invaded Bavaria in 1646. The Thirty Years' War was ended by the Peace of Westphalia (1648), by which France gained greatly. Her claim to Metz, Toul, and Verdun was recognized, and Alsace was added to her possessions. Mazarin called on Cromwell for aid, and the English and French entered Spain. The Spaniards were defeated at the Battle of the Dunes (1658) and the Peace of the Pyrenees was signed (1659), Spain ceding territory on the northern frontier of France. In 1665 Louis claimed certain portions of the Spanish Netherlands as his inheritance and secured a small strip of land by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1668). By the Peace of Nemiguen (1678) France gained Franche Comté from Spain. Large districts on the eastern frontier, including Strassburg, were annexed.

France was now the dominating power in Europe. She became stronger when Charles II of Spain, in 1700, gave by will his Spanish possessions to Louis XIV. This brought about the War of the Spanish Succession. The other European nations formed a great coalition. England sent Marlborough to the Continent to coöperate

with Prince Eugène of the House of Savoy, and the allies proved victorious in the battle of Blenheim (1704). Other important engagements were: Ramillies (1706), Oudenarde (1708), and Malplaquet (1709), all defeats for the French. Peace was signed in Utrecht in 1713.

In the reign of Louis XV (1715-1774) the War of the Polish

Dogs Trained by French Hospital Corps to Hunt for Wounded Soldiers

Succession was undertaken in 1733. France was defeated; but by the Peace of Vienna (1738) Lorraine was converted into a recognized and legal power. Then came the War of the Austrian Succession, in which France, in alliance with Frederick of Prussia, fought against Maria Theresa of Austria and England. In 1745 the French won Fontenoy and in 1747 Laffeldt. Thus the French gained possession of Holland and the Netherlands. Next followed the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), and in 1756 the Seven Years' War, humiliating to France, for the English triumphed in India and America.

The monarchy fell in the days of Louis XVI (1774-1792) and

France passed through many and violent changes. The opening of the States-General (May, 1789) marks the beginning of the French Revolution. In 1791 its name was changed to the National Assembly and later to the Constitutional Assembly. Feudalism was abolished; the church was put under control of the state and its property was confiscated; and France was divided into departments, the old provinces being abolished.

The outbreak of a great war against Prussia and the empire was one of the contributory causes of the Reign of Terror. In 1792 war was declared against Austria. Prussia joined Austria, and on September 20 Kellermann and Dumouriez won a great victory for the French at Valmy.

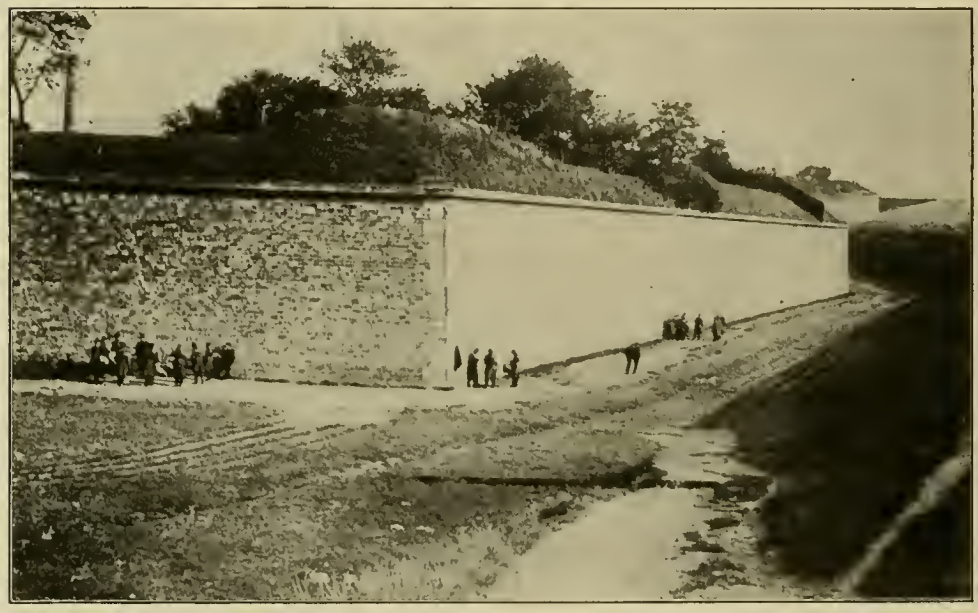
Napoleon began his career in the year 1794, and carried the French arms into every part of Europe. He also entered Egypt, having an ambition to subjugate India.

On the establishment of the Confederation of the Rhine (July 12, 1806), the emperor was forced to surrender the title which his family had held for five hundred years, and now took the title of Francis I, Emperor of Austria. The great Holy Roman Empire, which had existed for five hundred years, was ended. In 1806-1808 Napoleon gathered in so many petty German sovereigns that at the close of 1808 he owned a new territory of 122,236 square miles, with a population of 14,608,877 and an army of 119,180 men.

Ever since the Stone Age, when Gaul was a chief center, a slow fusion of races has been taking place, so that the French people may almost be called homogeneous. In remote times the south was occupied by Iberians and Ligurians from North Africa, and all the land north of the Garonne by Celts from Central Europe. These were followed by Phœnicians from North Africa, Greeks from Asia Minor, Romans from Italy, Teutons (Visigoths, Burgundians and Franks) from Germany, and Norsemen from Scandinavia. A few Basques and Flemings in the extreme south and north still preserve their racial characteristics, and the Celts in Brittany survive as a distinct race. In the fifth century they were reënforced by their Cymric kinsmen from Britain, which accounts for the fact that many of the Celtic legends are similar in the two countries. All the other races were merged in the Gallo-Roman nation, which had its Neo-Latin

language, consisting of two divisions—the *langue d'oc* of the south and the *langue d'oïl* north of the Loire. Not until the end of the eleventh century did the French language become a full, varied, and completely organized medium of expression.

The French people are quick-witted and are gifted with high intelligence. They stand supreme in art and science, while their skilled fingers and beautiful finish give them high rank among artisans. For



One of the Scores of Heavy Forts Protecting Paris

four hundred years they have been the leaders of the world in taste and fashion. The peasantry are thrifty and industrious, and all classes and conditions are noted for their devotion to their country. There is no exact English equivalent for their word *patrie*. The saying *Dieu protège la France* is believed by every one.

France is rich in minerals. In iron and coal she stands next to Great Britain, the United States and Germany. Valuable mines of zinc, lead, copper, manganese, nickel, antimony, sulphur, gold, silver, and asphalt are also found. Marble and slate quarries exist in the mountains. The fisheries are valuable: sardines, herring, mackerel, tunny, lobsters, and anchovies yield large returns. Fruit trees also

abound. Chestnuts and walnuts are a great source of revenue. France is famed for her wines. In 1912 the vine-growers were estimated at 1,519,884, and the vintage, estimated at 1,306,448,000 gallons of wine, reached $357,085,000. During the last hundred years France has made great strides in agriculture. Cereals are cultivated over large areas. Potatoes and beets are raised. Wheat and the vine are the chief industries of the French peasant. The most extensive agriculture is carried on in the basins of the Seine, the Garonne, the upper Saône, and the middle Allier. Stock-raising is also productive: the fine draught-horses of Normandy are famous. In the departments bordering the Pyrenees mules are bred chiefly for Spain. Cattle are numerous on the Swiss borders, where cheese-making is a local occupation. Twenty-one departments are engaged in the rearing of silkworms and production of silk. Of late years southern France has engaged largely in bulb-raising, and her exports to the United States alone amount to $200,000 yearly. The industrial centers are situated near the coal basins, on account of the low price of fuel, or at the seaports, where English coal is landed. Paris, Lyons, and Nancy take the lead in manufactures. The center of the silk industry is Lyons, whence large exports are sent to Great Britain and the United States. Nancy is famed for its artificial flowers, cottons, woolens, and embroideries. Limoges is the principal seat of the porcelain manufacture, as well as for gloves and paper. Watches and clocks are made in the Jura and Vosges districts. Paris is the chief center of the manufacture of artistic gold and silver work.

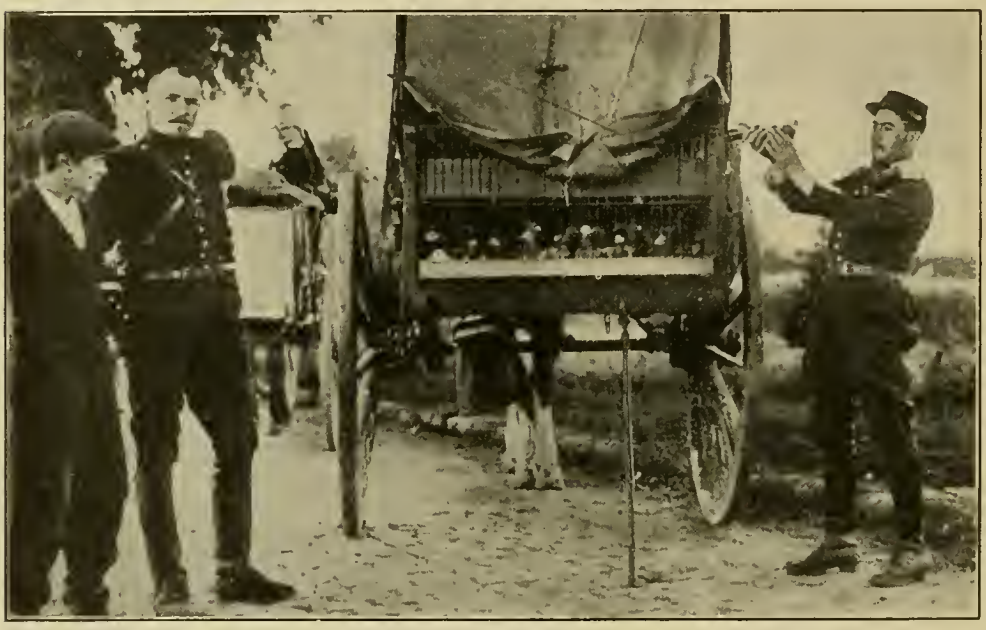
The northern departments are largely engaged in the manufacture of cotton and linen; Paris makes shawls, damasks, gauzes and muslins; lace and gloves contribute large sums to the public wealth, as do also perfumes and fine soaps, and other toilet articles. Paris exports many fine costumes, hats, feathers, artificial flowers and jewelry to Great Britain and the United States.

Ever since the overthrow of Napoleon III in 1870 France has been a republic governed by a president and an assembly consisting of two houses—the senate (300 members) and the chamber of deputies (597 members). The assembly elects the president for a term of seven years. The latter appoints the cabinet ministers and makes all civil and military appointments. The cabinet consists of a prime

minister and eleven ministers of justice, public instruction, war, marine, foreign affairs, finance, colonies, agriculture, commerce, public works, and labor.

The president of the republic, M. Raymond Poincaré (born in 1858), was elected on January 17, 1913.

For administrative purposes France is divided into eighty-six departments (eighty-seven, if the territory of Belfort is considered



Trooper of French Signal Corps releasing a message-bearing carrier pigeon

separate from the Haut-Rhin). Since 1881 the three departments of Algeria are generally considered as a part of France proper. The unit of local government is the commune, the local affairs being under a municipal council. Each municipal council elects a mayor. In Paris the municipal council is composed of eighty members. The city's twenty *arroudissements,* or districts, each having its own mayor, are presided over by the prefect of the Seine.

No religion is now recognized by the State.

In 1911 the population was given as 39,601,509.

War can be declared by the president only with the consent of the two houses. His every act must be countersigned by a minister. A

special body, the *Conseil d'Etat,* appointed by the president and presided over by the minister of justice, gives advice upon administrative points submitted by the Government.

The French army is administered by the war department, or ministry of war, assisted by an under secretary, a military cabinet and the chiefs of the various bureaus. A superior council, consisting of experienced officers and presided over by the commander-in-chief, gives expert advice. The chief of the general staff is responsible to the minister for plans, maneuvers, and preparations for war, and controls the directors of infantry, cavalry, engineers, artillery, finance, etc.

The national forces consist of the metropolitan army (703,000 men) and the colonial army (87,000 men), making a total of 790,000 men. The field army is reckoned at 20 army corps, the Lyons brigade of 14 battalions and 10 cavalry divisions, a total of about 800,000 combatants. The reserve (including cavalry) amounts to about 500,000 men—altogether a strength of about 1,300,000 combatants. The Algerian troops and troops of the colonial army, with the Algerian cavalry, adding about 80,000 men, would make a grand total of about 1,380,000 combatants. The peace strength, according to the budget for 1912-'13, has a total of 645,644.

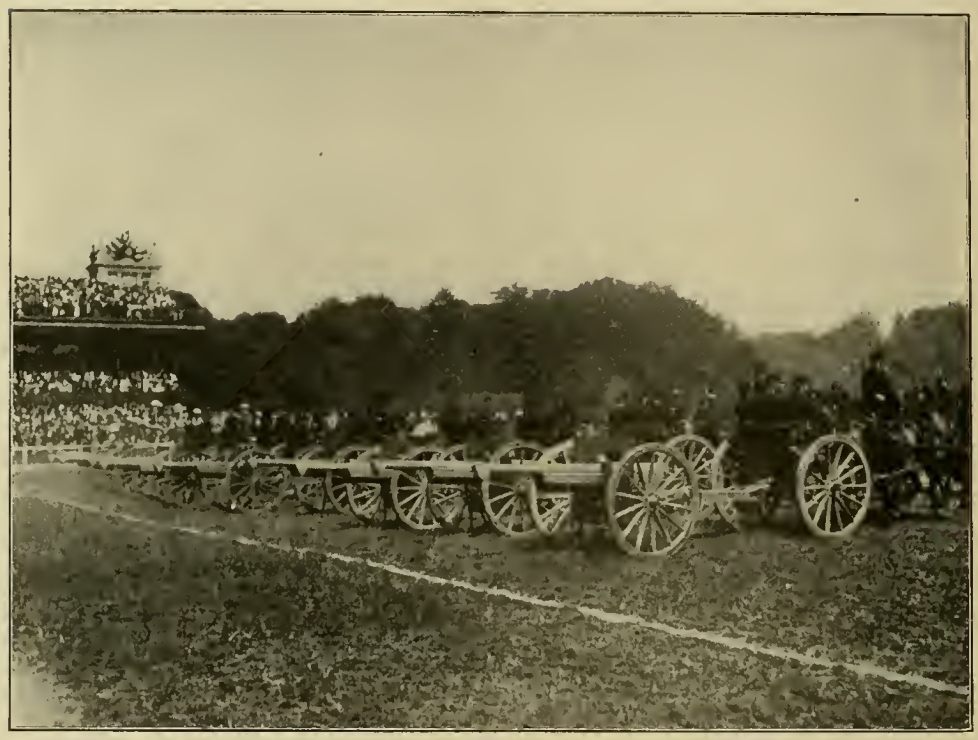
The headquarters are: Lille, Amiens, Rouen, Le Mans, Orléans, Châlons-sur-Marne, Besançon, Bourges, Tours, Rennes, Nantes, Limoges, Clermont-Ferrand, Lyons, Marseilles, Montpellier, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Algiers, and Nancy.

Military service is compulsory, liability to it extending from the age of twenty to forty-eight.

Until the outbreak of war in 1914, the strength by arms was: Infantry, 590 battalions, 24 Zouaves, 24 Algerian tirailleurs, 5 African light infantry, and 1 Saharan tirailleur. The fighting strength of the army, exclusive of Algiers and Tunis, was 490,000 men, with 42 coast batteries, 47 fortress batteries, 14 mountain batteries, 15 horse batteries, 619 field batteries, and 21 field howitzer batteries. The aëronautical corps is organized in three territorial groups. There are 27 sections of 8 aëroplanes, 10 cavalry sections of 3 aëroplanes each, and 11 fortress sections of 8 aëroplanes each, representing a total of 334 aëroplanes. The aëronautical corps also owns 14 dirigibles. The gendarmerie is a force of military police recruited

from the army but performing civil duties in time of peace. Their strength is about 21,700 men. The Garde Republicaine, another police force, performs duties in Paris similar to those of the gendarmerie in the departments. Its strength is about 3,000, of whom about 800 are mounted.

In 1913 there was a great development of the Boy Scouts. They



A Battery of France's Wonderful Field Artillery

are recruited from all members of society and participate in the reunions and exercises organized by the *Comité Central.*

The military law of 1913 made the length of service three years in the active army; eleven years in the reserve; seven years in the territorial army; and seven years in the reserve of the territorial army.

The peace strength of the metropolitan army comprises 25,695 officers, 483,768 men; the colonial army (in France), 1,891 officers and 25,672 men. The gendarmerie, Garde Republicaine, etc., bring

the force up to 673 officers and 25,672 men. Algeria and Tunis furnish 2837 officers and 69,191 men.

The colonial army, distinct from the metropolitan, consists of both white and native troops. The colonial troops at home consist of 12 regiments of infantry and 3 regiments of artillery. The troops in the colonies consist of three battalions of the Foreign Legion; 13 battalions and 4 companies of colonial infantry, 32 batteries of artillery, 1 squadron or native cavalry; 3 companies of native sappers; 49 battalions of native infantry. The officers and most of the non-commissioned officers are French. The total number of troops in oversea garrisons is about 134,000, of whom 75,000 are Europeans.

France's navy ranks fifth among the world's naval Powers. The minister of marine, who is a vice-admiral, is its head. The navy council consists of five vice-admirals occupying the position of the maritime prefect, the two vice-admirals commanding in home waters, and vice-admirals that have commanded the two home fleets within the past two years. There are also four inspectors-general. The navy is manned partly by conscription and partly by voluntary enlistment. The Inscription Maritime dates from 1683, originating with Colbert, minister of marine under Louis XIV.

The navy is composed of twenty battleships; forty-five armored cruisers and protected cruisers, 213 torpedo-boats and destroyers; sixty-five submarines; and a great number of transports, mine-layers, etc. There are four dreadnoughts, each of 23,400 tons displacement and 36,000 horse-power, and carrying twelve twelve-inch guns and twenty-two five-inch guns. There are three superdreadnoughts of 23,500 tons displacement, carrying ten thirteen-inch and twenty-two five-inch guns. The naval architects have carried ingenuity of construction to a high degree, in the four superdreadnoughts, launched but not yet in commission, of 25,387 tons displacement, having twelve thirteen-inch and twenty-four five-inch guns in groups of four in the turrets.

The minor cruisers include the aërial dépôt ship "Foudre." The navy has two centers of aviation—one at Fréjus-St.-Raphael, the other at Montpellier. There is an efficient corps of hydroplanes.

For purposes of administration, the French coasts are divided into five arrondissements, with headquarters at Cherbourg, Brest, Lorient,

Rochefort and Toulon, at each of which there are shipyards. Each arrondissement is presided over by a vice-admiral with the title of maritime prefect. The chief torpedo-stations are Cherbourg, Brest, Dunkirk, Lorient, Rochefort, Toulon, Corsica, Bizerta, Oran, Algiers and Bona. The forces afloat are: the Mediterranean Squadron, the Northern Squadron in the Channel; and the divisions of the Atlantic, Pacific, Far East, Cochin China, and the Indian Ocean.

Removing the Dead After the Battle of Charleroi

The personnel of the navy includes 4,128 officers, 60,153 sailors, and 35,000 workmen for the construction and repair of ships. France is provided with a reserve of 114,000 men, of whom about 25,500 are serving with the fleet.

In 1911 the French mercantile marine included 15,949 sailing-vessels, and 1,780 steamers, of 838,118 tons.

France's colonial possessions in the East are Pondicherry in India (about 196 square miles, population 276,484); Annam (52,100 square miles, population 5,554,822); Cambodia (45,000 square miles, population 1,634,252). Cochin China (20,000 square miles, population

3,050,785) ; Tonking (46,400 square miles, population 6,119,720) ; the Laos Territory (98,000 square miles, population 640,877) ; and the territory of Kwang Chau Wan on the coast of China, leased from China in 1898, which, with two islands in the bay, was placed under

French Mountain Battery

the authority of the governor-general of Indo-China (190 square miles, population about 150,000).

On the evening of August 1, 1914, following the action of Germany in mobilizing her army against Russia, France ordered the mobilizing of her own army. On August 12 she declared war on Austria-Hungary, and two days later (August 14) her troops entered Belgium to assist in the defense of Brussels, penetrating as far as Gembloux, north of the Sambre.

WILLIAM (WILHELM) II

German Emperor, King of Prussia. Born in Berlin, January 27, 1859. Son of the Emperor Frederick III and of Victoria, Sister of Edward VII. Succeeded to the Throne on the Death of His Father, June 15, 1888. Married, February 27, 1881, Augusta Victoria, Princess of Schleswig-Holstein

The German Empire.—Germany, the storm-center of the war, occupies the central part of Europe, having for its geographical neighbors Russia, Hungary, Austria, Switzerland, France, Luxemburg, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Denmark. Within twenty-four hours its war-ships can reach Great Britain across the North Sea. Its coast-line is about 1,200 miles in length, and it has 3,500 miles of land frontier to guard. Southern Germany is elevated, and, in certain regions, mountainous, though the highest peak in the empire (Zugspitze, in

Kaiser Reviewing the Imperial Guards at Potsdam

Bavaria) reaches an elevation of only 9,725 feet. The northern part, embracing about one third of the country, is a low-lying plain. Germany has no well-defined natural borders except on her Austro-Hungarian and Swiss frontiers, and for a few miles in Alsace, where the Vosges Mountains rise between her and France. The rest of the French boundary is an arbitrary line, while the coast plain that stretches across Northern Germany merges into Holland and Belgium on the west and Russian Poland on the east. The country slopes to the North Sea and the Baltic, to which four great rivers find their way, running roughly in parallel courses. The Rhine, which courses through Holland, the Weser, and the Elbe flow into the North Sea;

NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
DENMARK
SWEDEN
RUSSIA
Copenhagen
Funen
Seeland
Bornholm
Memel
Königsberg
Gumbinnen
Gulf of Danzig
R. Pregel
East Prussia
Danzig
Elbing
Pomerania
West Prussia
Stettin
Stargard
Bromberg
Thorn
Marienwerder
Neu Stettin
Stolp
Cöslin
Colberg
Rügen I.
Stralsund
Rostock
Lübeck
Kiel
Kiel B.
Holstein
Hamburg
MECKLENBURG
Schwerin
Wismar
Hellgoland
West & East Frisian Is.
Emden
Leeuwarden
Groningen
Oldenburg
Bremen
Lüneburg
Harburg
Altona
Elbe
Weser
Hanover
Celle
Hildesheim
Brunswick
Wittenberge
Fehrbellin
Spandau
BERLIN
Potsdam
Brandenburg
Magdeburg
Frankfurt
Posen
Warsaw
R. Vistula
R. Warthe
R. Netze
Gnesen
Custrin
Silesia
Breslau
Liegnitz
Görlitz
Lissa
Glogau
Oppeln
Beuthen
Ratibor
Neisse R.
Saxony
Leipzig
Dresden
Chemnitz
Zwickau
Halle
Dessau
Wittenberg
Cuben
Westphalia
Münster
Osnabrück
Minden
Hanover
Amsterdam
The Hague
Rotterdam
Utrecht
Arnhem
Zwolle
Haarlem
Leyden
Elberfeld
Düsseldorf
Cologne
Crefeld
Essen
Dortmund
Antwerp
Brussels
BELGIUM
Liege
Namur
Aix la Chapelle
Bonn
Coblenz
Rhine Province
Hesse Nassau
Hessen
Nassau
Thuringia
Weimar
Gotha
Eisenach
Meiningen
Coburg
Frankfort
Wiesbaden
Mayence
Darmstadt
Hanau
Würzburg
Bamberg
Bayreuth
Prague
Bohemia
Brunn
Mannheim
Spires
Palatinate
Heidelberg
Carlsruhe
Nuremberg
Ratisbon
BAVARIA
Stuttgart
WÜRTEMBERG
Ulm
Augsburg
Munich
Landshut
Passau
R. Danube
River Danube
VIENNA
AUSTRIA - HUNGARY
Strasburg
FRANCE
Nancy
Metz
Verdun
Reims
Lorraine
Muhlhausen
Freiburg
Dijon
Basle
R. Rhine
Lake of Constance
SWITZERLAND
The Alps
GERMANY
English Miles
0 20 40 60 100 150
Longitude East & of Greenwich

the Oder and the Vistula into the Baltic. The smaller Niemen runs through Russia and cuts into German territory a few miles west of the frontier. Hamburg, Germany's great port, is on the estuary of the Elbe; Bremen is on the Weser. Not far from Hamburg lies one entrance of the great Kaiser-Wilhelm Canal, which joins the North Sea and the Baltic, across territory wrested from Denmark in 1864, and gives the fleet the great strategic advantage of quick and safe access to both seas. Germany has no great lakes; but east of the Elbe, along the Baltic plain, across which the Russian army of invasion will operate, there are hundreds of small and medium-sized lakes. The area of Germany is 208,780 square miles. Its population, according to the census of 1910, was 64,925,993, an average of 310.4 to the square mile. In 1816 the population of the same area was 24,831,396.

The present German Empire is one of the youngest of the nations, as it dates only from 1871, and though the history of the various States that comprise it begins at the time of the break-up of the western Roman Empire, it was only after the fall of Napoleon in 1815 that the group of Teutonic States that now form the empire took political shape. During the eighteenth century what is now Germany had been a jumble of more than three hundred independent States; and Germany owes to the conqueror Napoleon the first impetus toward consolidation, for he roughly swept most of them out of existence, and at his fall they numbered only thirty-nine. The Congress of Vienna, which in 1815 carefully picked up and cemented the pieces into which Napoleon had shattered Europe, constituted the German Confederation, a clumsy organization, under the leadership of Austria. A promising liberal movement toward the establishment of a German empire took place in 1848, when a national parliament was called; but the movement was doomed when in 1849 the weak King of Prussia refused to accept the office of German Emperor to which he had been chosen. There was not room in Germany for both Prussia and Austria, and their rivalries made a real union impossible. Prince Bismarck, to whose ruthless but sagacious and successful statesmanship Germany owes the greatness she has now so rashly placed in jeopardy, took advantage of quarrels with Austria over the administration of Schleswig-Holstein, which was taken from Denmark in 1864 by the combined forces of the two Powers, to force a final clash between the rivals.

From Nelson's "War Atlas."

THE EXTENSION OF PRUSSIA

Austria was completely vanquished in the seven weeks' war that followed (1866), and Europe awoke to the realization that a new power of extraordinary military efficiency was thereafter to be reckoned with. Prussia, greatly increased in territory by the Austrian war, now became the dominant power in the new North German Confederation, with offensive and defensive treaties of alliance with three

The Kaiser as a Country Gentleman

southern States—Bavaria, Wurttemberg, and Baden. The growing power of Prussia brought her into rivalry with France, then ruled by Napoleon III, the mediocre nephew and namesake of the great emperor. Bismarck took the same skilful and unscrupulous advantage of the fatuity of the French emperor that he previously had taken of Austria, and a pretext for war was easily found. On July 19, 1870, Napoleon III declared war, and his army set out for Berlin. On September 2, the unfortunate Emperor Napoleon was a prisoner,

PRINCE OSCAR

Fifth Son of the Kaiser, in Command of One of the German Armies

and on January 18, 1871, in the ancient palace of the French kings at Versailles, William I, King of Prussia, was proclaimed German Emperor. On April 16, 1871, the constitution of the new empire was promulgated. In accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Frankfort-on-the-Main (May 10, 1871), which closed the Franco-Prussian war, France ceded Alsace and German-speaking Lorraine to Germany and paid a war indemnity of 5,000,000,000 francs ($1,000,000,000). Since then the conquests of Germany have been intellectual,

German Soldiers Jeered by French at the Frontier before the War

scientific, industrial, and commercial, and she has aroused the admiration of the whole world by her achievements in all lines of human progress—with the exception of liberal government. The medieval autocracy of the emperor and the odious militarism of the ruling classes undoubtedly were the most powerful influences in impelling Germany to challenge the world in arms. Since 1871 Germany has devoted herself to the task of building up her industries and foreign trade with extraordinary energy and skill and with such success that at the outbreak of the war her foreign trade and her magnificent merchant marine were second only to those of Great Britain. At the same time, she had the most formidable military machine that the world had ever

seen, and her navy had reached such proportions as to cause great uneasiness to the mistress of the seas across the North Sea.

In 1884, with the acquisition of some small territories in Africa, Germany entered upon her career as a colonial power, and her possessions at the opening of the war had an area of more than a million square miles, with a population of twelve millions. The "Triple Alliance" (*Dreibund*), between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy, negotiated by Bismarck in 1883, has just fallen apart by the defection of Italy, probably actuated by her inveterate hatred against Austria and her desire to redeem the Italian-speaking provinces that are still held by Austria. The following table shows the States that compose the empire, and gives important information regarding them:

		Capital	Area, Square Miles	Population	Religion by Percentages	Members in Bundesrath	Deputies in Reichstag
Prussia	Kingdom	Berlin	134,616	40,165,219	66 Prot.	17	236
Bavaria	"	Munich	29,292	6,887,291	70 R.C.	6	48
Saxony	"	Dresden	5,789	4,806,661	95 Prot.	4	23
Wurttemberg	"	Stuttgart	7,534	2,437,547	68 Prot.	4	17
Baden	Grand Duchy	Carlsruhe	5,823	2,142,833	59 R.C.	3	14
Hesse	" "	Darmstadt	2,966	1,282,051	69 Prot.	3	9
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	" "	Wismar	5,068	639,958	96 Prot.	2	6
Saxony	" "	Weimar	1,397	417,149	94 Prot.	1	3
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	" "	Neu-Strelitz	1,131	106,442	Prot.	1	1
Oldenburg	" "	Oldenburg	2,482	483,042	79 Prot.	1	3
Brunswick	Duchy	Brunswick	1,418	494,339	Prot.	2	3
Saxe-Meiningen	"	Meiningen	953	278,762	Prot.	1	2
Saxe-Altenburg	"	Altenburg	511	216,128	Prot.	1	1
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	"	Coburg-Gotha	764	257,177	Prot.	1	2
Anhalt	"	Dessau	888	331,128	Prot.	1	2
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	Principality	Sondershausen	333	89,917	Prot.	1	1
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	"	Rudolstadt	363	100,702	Prot.	1	1
Waldeck	"	Arolsen	433	61,707	Prot.	1	1
Reuss Aelteres Linie	"	Greiz	122	72,769	Prot.	1	1
Reuss Jungerer Linie	"	Gera	319	152,752	Prot.	1	1
Schaumburg-Lippe	"	Buckeburg	131	46,652	Prot.	1	1
Lippe	"	Detmold	469	150,937	Prot.	1	1
Lubeck	Free Town		115	116,599	96 Prot.	1	1
Bremen	" "		99	299,526	87 Prot.	1	1
Hamburg	" "		160	1,014,664	92 Prot	1	3
Alsace-Lorraine	Reichsland	Strassburg	5,604	1,874,014	76 R.C.	3	15

The four kingdoms, six grand duchies, five duchies, seven principalities, three free towns, and the imperial territory of Alsace-Lorraine bear somewhat the same relation to the empire that the various States bear to the Federal Government of the United States. Some

Friedrich Wilhelm, Crown Prince of Prussia

of the principalities are very tiny, and with their well-nigh feudal governments are anachronistic survivals of medieval times. The autonomy of the free cities also dates from the Middle Ages, when these cities were at the head of the Hanseatic League, a powerful union of the commercial cities of the coast. By the constitution, the King of Prussia is also the German Emperor. The present King of Prussia and German Emperor is William II, grandson of the emperor who was proclaimed at Versailles. The hegemony of the Kingdom of Prussia lies not alone in the honor of the presidency of the Empire

A GROUP OF HIGH GERMAN OFFICIALS

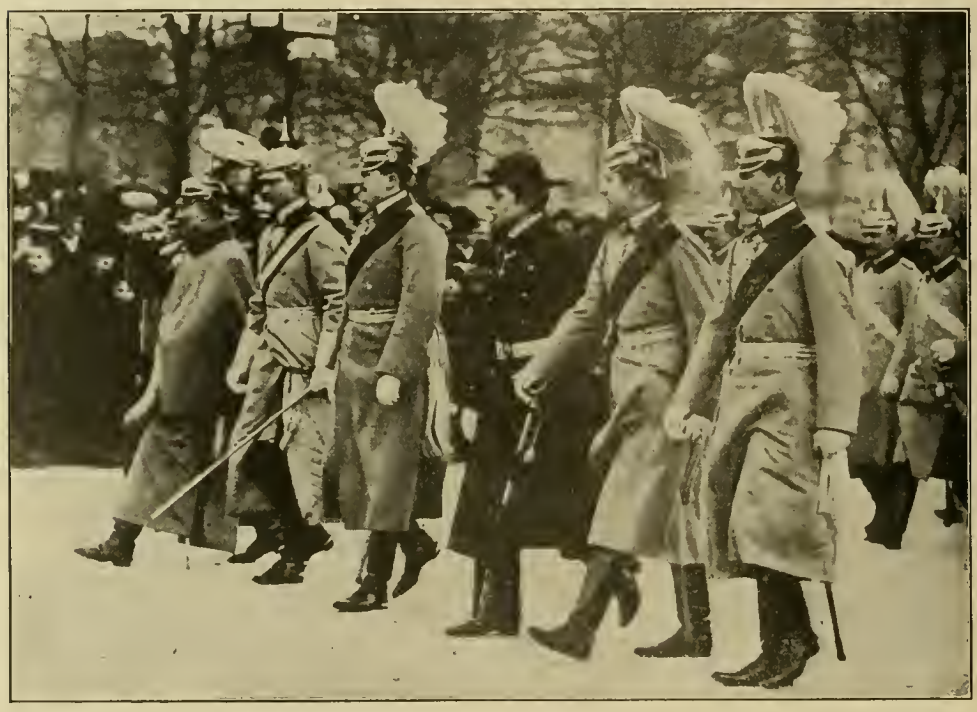
conferred upon her king. Her vote in the Bundesrath is sufficiently large to prevent the passage of any constitutional amendments which she (that is to say, the emperor) may not favor. Certain special privileges were granted to Bavaria, Wurttemberg, and Baden also, to induce them to join the empire. The two former, for example, have their own railway and postal systems, and their armies are separate military organizations. Local patriotism is especially strong in Bavaria. The emperor has the power of declaring war, if defensive, making peace, and entering into treaties with foreign nations. He is also commander-in-chief of the army and the navy, and the supreme direction of the affairs of the empire is vested in him. King George of England is also the commander-in-chief of the British army and navy, and all government nominally centers in him. As a matter of fact, however, he is a mere shadow of royalty, whereas the German emperor is the head and front of the government.

All laws passed by the legislature must be promulgated by the emperor, and their administration is entrusted to him. The executive power of the emperor is exercised by the imperial chancellor, who is responsible, not to the legislature, but to the emperor, and holds office at his pleasure. Under the supervision of the chancellor are fourteen secretaries (of foreign affairs, admiralty, army, post-office, etc.) ; but these secretaries are in no sense comparable with the British cabinet, which is responsible to parliament and over which the king has not a vestige of authority. The imperial chancellor is president of the Bundesrath, and has a seat in the Reichstag, where he acts as the mouthpiece of the government.

The legislature is composed of two chambers: the Bundesrath, or Federal Council, and the Reichstag, or National Diet. The Bundesrath represents the federal principle, as does our Senate, and all the States, however petty, are represented in it. The table on page 282 shows the apportionment of the sixty-one members of the Bundesrath among the various States. The members are appointed by their respective State governments, and each State delegation must vote as a unit in accordance with instructions from its government. The Bundesrath shares with the emperor certain powers of nominating and appointing imperial officials. Its members are regarded as ambassadors from the States they represent—they have, in fact, the same

privilege of ex-territoriality and rank with them officially—and may address the Reichstag in favor of measures advocated by their governments.

Under the direction of the imperial chancellor, the Bundesrath acts as a supreme administrative and consultative board, its powers in this respect being exercised through twelve standing committees with

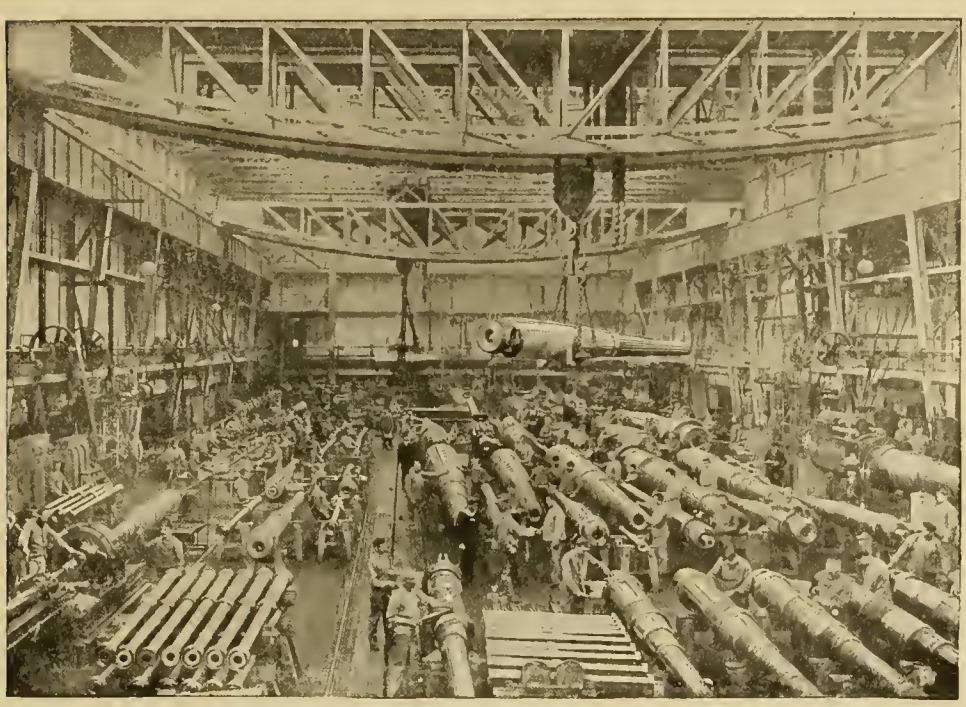


Kaiser William II and His Five Sons

authority over various departments of government—the army, navy, tariff, trade, railways, finance, civil and criminal law, foreign affairs, Alsace and Lorraine, the constitution, standing orders, and railway tariffs. The Bundesrath also exercises the functions of our Supreme Court, in legal and constitutional controversies between States.

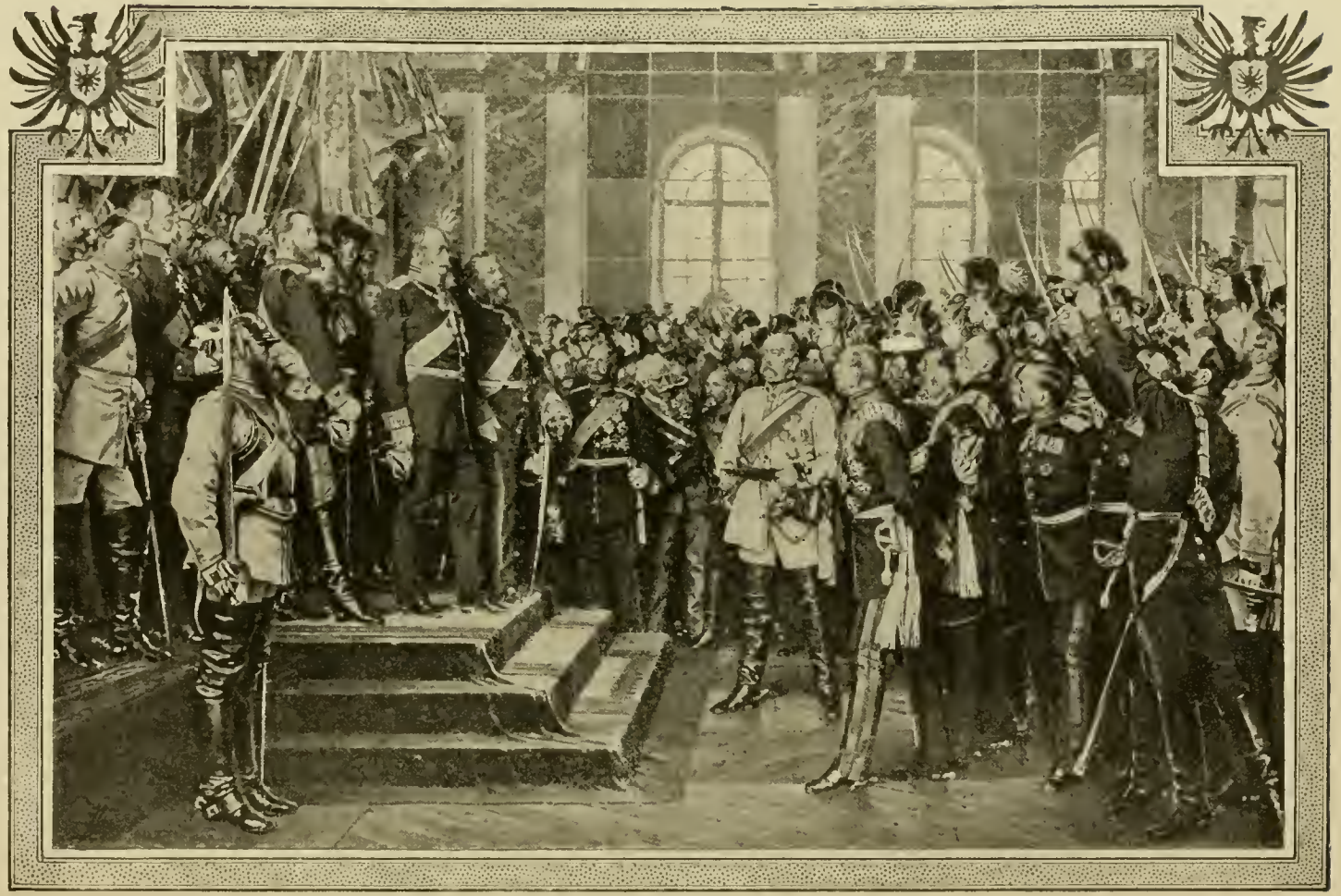
The Reichstag is composed of three hundred and ninety-seven deputies elected by universal suffrage for a term of five years, the representation of each State being determined by its population. The result naturally is that the Reichstag is mainly Prussian. The members receive 3,000 marks ($714) for each session, with a deduction of

twenty marks for each day's absence. They receive also free passes over the railroads. The Reichstag has equal powers of initiating legislation with the Bundesrath, and the two bodies have constitutional jurisdiction over many things which in the United States fall within the province of the several States. Laws, when passed by the imperial legislature, are administered by the various State governments under the emperor's supervision.



Gun Factory at the Krupp Works, Essen

Germany enjoys uniform codes of civil and criminal law throughout the empire. The courts are of three grades, with successively wider jurisdiction and powers in cases of appeal from lower courts, the highest being the Supreme Court of one hundred members (*Reichsgericht*), which sits at Leipzig. Bavaria has a supreme court of its own (*Oberstes Landesgericht*), composed of twenty-two members, with revising jurisdiction over the lower Bavarian courts. The German jury consists of twelve members, and usually three judges occupy the bench. The shameful entanglement with politics which dis-



PROCLAMATION OF THE GERMAN EMPEROR AT VERSAILLES, JAN. 18, 1871.

graces and corrupts our lower courts does not exist there, and the German judge is placed in a position of absolute independence, because, once appointed, there is no power to remove, transfer, or retire him against his will, so long as he properly discharges his duties. With the exception of the members of the Supreme Court, appointed by the emperor upon the nomination of the Bundesrath, the judges are appointed and paid by the various States. Since 1907 the number of causes tried in the various courts of Germany has not increased as rapidly as the population. In 1911, the latest year for which figures are available, 1,446,472 persons were tried by German courts, and 552,560 were convicted. This was equal to 119.8 convictions for each 10,000 inhabitants. In 1907 the ratio was 122.2.

Germany has grappled with the problem of pauperism in a very intelligent way, though the growth of socialism, at which such measures were aimed, has not been checked thereby, as 112 socialist deputies—nearly one third of its membership—sit in the Reichstag. The German national compulsory insurance of workingmen against sickness, accident, and old age is a very comprehensive scheme for the alleviation of those evils on a scale vastly larger than any nation had ever before attempted. In fact, nothing yet approaches it except the English old-age pension system. For insurance against sickness, workmen must pay two thirds and the employer one third of the contribution, or premium. The employers must pay the total charges for the insurance of their workmen against accident. For old-age and infirmity pensions the employer must pay half, and the beneficiary half, the State contributing $12 to each pension when it is paid. The employer is responsible for the payment of all the authorized contributions, both his own and the employee's, but the latter's charges may be deducted from his wages. Premiums are paid by affixing postage-stamps to official cards weekly. Old-age and infirmity pensions are paid after contributions have been kept up regularly for 1,200 weeks (twenty-five and one half years). Pensions are divided into five classes, according to wages received. The lowest class is on wages of about $84 a year. On this the weekly contribution is about three and one half cents, and the yearly pension about $38. The highest class is based on yearly wages between $275 and $480. In this class the weekly contributions are about eight and one half cents, and the yearly

A Brigade of German Horse Artillery

pension about $77. In the year 1911 the total amount of compensation paid by the State for insurance of the three classes was $206,179,000.

In religion, Germany is 61 per cent. Protestant and 36 per cent. Catholic. Jews form about 1 per cent. of the population. The table on page 282, giving statistical information regarding the component States of the Empire, reveals sharp contrasts in the religious make-up of the country, Prussia and Saxony, for example, being strongly Protestant, and Bavaria and Baden largely Catholic.

Education is compulsory throughout Germany, and so thoroughly have the elementary schools done their work that the number of illiterates in the empire is astonishingly small. In 1912 only one twentieth of one per cent. of the army recruits were reported as illiterate. There are twenty-one universities in the empire, four of which are Catholic, four mixed, and thirteen Protestant. These universities have a total of 3,450 professors and teachers and 59,312 students. The largest is Berlin, with 502 professors and teachers and 10,274 students. The technical and agricultural schools of Germany are highly efficient and have contributed powerfully to Germany's wonderful commercial advance. The naval academy is at Kiel, and the two military academies

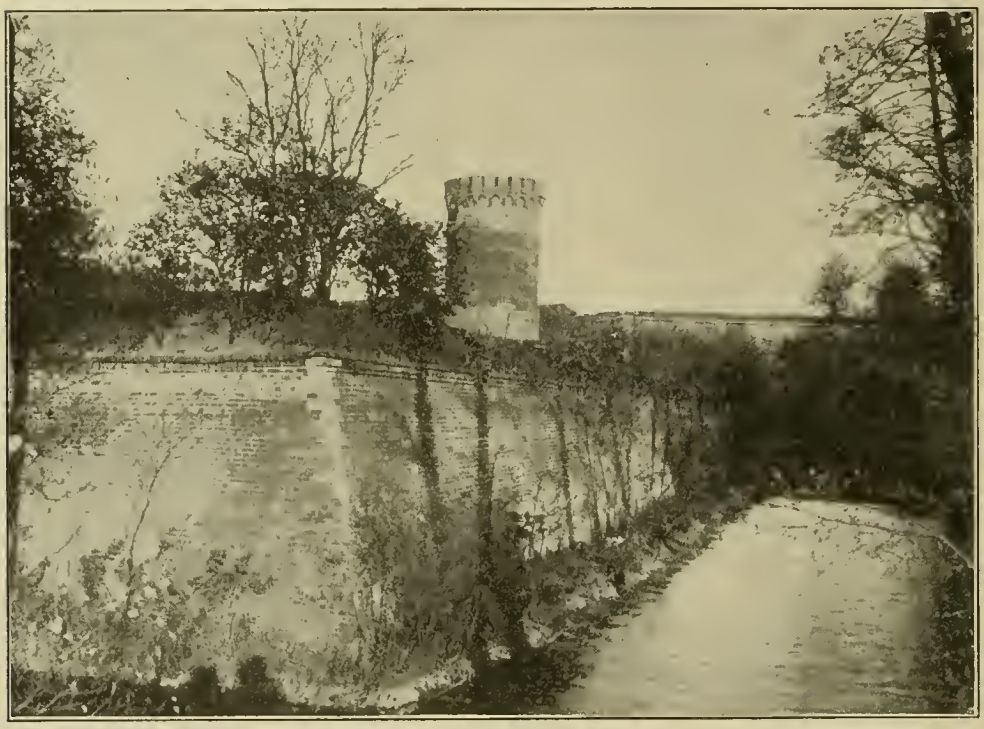
German Horse Artillery on the March

are at Berlin and Munich. According to a school census taken in 1911, there were in the empire 61,557 elementary public schools, with a total attendance of 10,309,949. Differences of religious opinion are officially recognized by the educational authorities in Germany, and special schools are provided for Protestants, Catholics, and Jews. While German is the language of the greater part of the population, there are still nearly 4,500,000 subjects of the empire who cannot speak its language. About 3,500,000 Poles in Eastern Prussia, 200,000 French in Alsace and Lorraine, and 140,000 Danes in Schleswig-Holstein still obstinately reject the language of the conquering race.

The imperial revenues are derived from customs duties, excise taxes on spirits, tobacco, etc., and profits of the railways, postal service, and telegraphs. In addition, the various States are assessed in proportion to their population. The estimated revenue for the year ending March 31, 1915, is $831,979,854. The total expenditure during the year ending March 31, 1914, was $879,656,301. The expenses of the war, of course, will increase enormously the expenditure for 1914.

Germany is divided, for national defense, into ten "fortress districts," as follows: On the eastern Baltic, Königsberg; on the Rus-

sian and Austrian borders, Thorn and Posen; in the interior, Berlin; in the south, Munich and Mainz; on the French frontier, Metz and Strassburg; on the Belgian frontier, Cologne; on the North Sea and western Baltic, Kiel. Königsberg contains the first-class fortresses of Königsberg and Danzig, the latter one of the coast-defense system, with the minor defenses of Pillau, Memel, and Boyen. Posen



The Julius Tower at Spandau, Where Germany Kept Her Great War Treasure

contains the first-class fortresses of Posen and Neisse, together with Glogau and Glatz. Berlin contains the heavy fortresses of Spandau, Magdeburg, and Küstrin, with Torgau. Mainz contains Mainz, Ulm, and Rastatt—all of the first class. Metz has Diedenhofen and Bitsch, besides the powerful fortress of Metz. Cologne contains Cologne and Coblenz of the first class, with Wesel and Saarlouis. Kiel contains, besides the heavily fortified naval bases of Kiel and Wilhelmshaven, the coast fortifications of Friedrichsort, Cuxhaven, Geestemünde, and Swinemünde. Thorn contains Thorn, Graudenz, Vistula

Passages, and Dirschau—all of the second class. Strassburg contains New Breisach and the formidable fortress of Strassburg. Munich has Germersheim and the first-class fortress of Ingolstadt.

It is impossible to find some of these fortified places upon an ordinary commercial map; but they now overshadow the great cities of the empire in importance, and some of them will probably become historic spots before the close of the war.

The German army is undoubtedly the most formidable military machine with which mankind has so far burdened itself. Last year it cost the German people $206,347,000. Military service is universal and unescapable, except for physical disability or through special exemption. At the age of seventeen, the boy becomes liable for service, but in time of peace does not actually join the army until the beginning of his twentieth year. From that time until his forty-fifth year every German is a soldier, either with the colors or in one division or another of the reserve. He first serves two years continuously in the ranks, and then passes for five years into the first line of the reserve. While in the reserve, he is still attached to his corps, and must return to it twice for periods of training not exceeding eight weeks. Having completed the first stage of his military career at twenty-seven years of age, the German then passes into the Landwehr, which constitutes Germany's second army. For five years he serves with the first "ban," during which time he must report twice for training for one or two weeks. Having completed this term, he passes into the second ban of the Landwehr until his thirty-ninth year; but he is not liable to be called for training in this period. Still the State is not through with him. Between the ages of thirty-nine and forty-five he is enrolled in the Landsturm, or home-defense army, which contains, in addition to those who have completed their military service, all those who have been exempted for any reason.

The foregoing is the military career of an infantryman or a field-artilleryman. In the cavalry and the horse-artillery, the men serve three years in the ranks, four years with the reserve, and then three years with the first "ban" of the Landwehr. As Germany is fortunate in having more boys arriving at military age each year than she needs, there is organized to provide for them what is known as the "Ersatz" reserve. Those enrolled in this division receive special short

periods of training, and a large portion of them are destined for non-combatant military duties in time of war. Besides the conscripts, who are soldiers whether they will or no, there are two classes of volunteers in the army. One is composed of well-to-do and well-educated young men who serve for one year and pay their own expenses, many of them being graduated as officers of the reserve and Landwehr; the

The Colors of the Guards Passing in Review Before the Emperor

other includes those who have a liking for military life, remain in the army permanently, and for the most part provide it with its non-commissioned officers.

The officers are professional soldiers, who are destined for a military career from an early age. They are drawn from the sons of the well-to-do classes, and are mainly nobles. They are highly educated, and thoroughly trained in everything that pertains to the military art. They are animated by an intense military patriotism and a devotion to the emperor, and are possessed of a fierce determination that success

shall crown the German arms at whatever cost to themselves and the men under their command.

In case of war, the reserves are immediately called to the colors, and the men of the Landwehr, in such numbers as may be necessary,

Germans Removing Their Wounded from a Belgium Battlefield

are concentrated in depots, to be drawn upon to supply the losses at the front, to man forts, to defend lines of communication, and to perform such other duties as the military situation may require. Should a last desperate defense be necessary, the members of the Landsturm must take their places at the front.

The German army is divided into twenty-five army corps, each corps being an independent unit consisting of all arms of the service—

THE KAISER DIRECTING THE TESTS OF A NEW MACHINE-GUN

cavalry, artillery, engineers, and infantry—numbering in all about 43,000 men when on a war footing. The peace establishment, or standing army, for the year 1913 was 36,304 officers, 754,681 men, and 157,816 horses. To this must be added about 470,000 reserves, making the total strength of the field army about 1,250,000 men. The Landwehr can yield about 600,000 men ready for early action. The remaining available forces, before resorting to the Landsturm, are variously estimated, but probably do not fall short of 1,500,000. Hence, Germany can put into the field, for offensive warfare, about 3,350,000 men.

Mobilizing the Landsturm at Leipsic

The infantry is armed with the Mauser magazine rifle, of a caliber of .311 inch, model 1898. The field and horse artillery are equipped with 15-pounder Krupp guns, model of 1896. Their light howitzer throws a 30-pound shell. The heavy siege howitzer is a 94-pounder. These guns are described in the chapter on military weapons. The cavalry are armed throughout with the lance. Not all German cavalrymen are Uhlans, however, as current war despatches appear to indicate, though there is little difference among the various classes of cavalry, except in name.

The German fleet is manned by compulsory service in the same manner that the army is recruited. Young men who have followed any calling connected with the sea are drafted into the navy instead

MAINZ ON THE RHINE

A Heavily Fortified City, and the German Headquarters During the Early Part of the War

of into the army, and volunteers are numerous among the sea-faring classes. The German navy is now rated as second only to that of Great Britain. Great Britain is incomparably more powerful in the number and tonnage of her ships; but since she made the fatal error of building her "Dreadnought" the fighting strength of the world's navies has been reckoned mainly in terms of that class, and in the building of dreadnoughts Germany has been feverishly active ever since 1907. At the end of 1914, Germany will have completed 21 dreadnoughts, against England's 31; 20 pre-dreadnought battleships, against England's 40; 47 cruisers, against England's 126; 152 destroyers, against England's 248; and at least 37 submarines, against England's 85. In addition, many of the fast ships of the North German Lloyd and the Hamburg-American lines were rated as auxiliary cruisers. Most of these ships, however, are now out of the reach of English cruisers, in New York, Hamburg, and Bremen, and some have been sunk during hostilities. The most important naval bases are Kiel, Sonderburg, and Dantzig, in the Baltic, and Wilhelmshaven and Cuxhaven on the North Sea. The small island of Heligoland, facing the mouths of the Weser and the Elbe in the North Sea, is heavily fortified.

It is known that Germany possesses far more dirigibles, and these of greater size, power, and cruising range than any other nation. Just how many she actually has constructed has not been divulged, but she undoubtedly has not fewer than forty. Germany is very proud of and places great confidence in these craft, which are peculiarly of her own contriving. The number of aëroplanes in her naval and military service is also a matter of conjecture; but she probably has about 700 machines, in addition to those which civilians may place at the disposal of the government. In the army there are five aëroplane battalions, numbering 4,619 officers and men. The naval estimates for the year 1914 called for an expenditure of $118,735,000 contrasted with England's $250,877,000.

Passing from military and naval affairs to peaceful pursuits, now so sadly disrupted, an occupation-census taken in 1907 showed that, of a population of 31,497,000, 9,732,000 were engaged in agriculture; 11,256,000 in industries and mining; 3,478,000 in commerce; 1,736,000 in domestic service; while 1,738,000 were classed as professional.

THE WAR LORD AT MANEUVERS

The Kaiser in Mimic Warfare a Few Months before the Outbreak of Real War

About 86,000,000 acres of land are under cultivation, while 34,569,000 acres are in timber-producing forests, carefully nurtured by the State in accordance with scientific forestry methods. The war situation gives particular significance to the following agricultural statistics: In 1913 the production of wheat was 4,656,000 metric tons; of rye, 12,222,000 tons; of barley, 3,673,000 tons; of potatoes, 54,000,000 tons; of hay, 29,000,000 tons; of oats, 9,700,000 tons. The metric

German Artillerymen Pushing Their Guns up a Hill

ton is almost the same as our "long ton," being 2,204 pounds. An animal census taken in 1912 showed 4,516,000 horses, 20,158,000 cattle, 5,788,000 sheep, 22,000,000 swine, and 3,390,000 goats.

In 1912 there were mined 174,875,000 metric tons of coal, 80,934,000 tons of lignite, 27,000,000 tons of iron ore, 975,000 tons of copper ore, 143,000 tons of lead ore, 1,296,000 tons of rock salt, and 11,000,000 tons of potassic salts. The total value of the minerals mined in 1912 was $564,000,000. In 1913 the furnaces of the empire produced 19,292,000 tons of pig iron.

THE KAISER AND COUNT VON MOLTKE

Count von Moltke, the Chief of the German General Staff, is Seated on the Emperor's Left

The fisheries of Germany employ about 35,000 persons, and their yearly product is valued at nearly $100,000,000.

The manufactures of Germany have reached colossal proportions, and the Germans excel in nearly every department of industry. In some lines, such as chemicals and drugs, they have almost a monopoly, as Americans have discovered to their cost. They have been very aggressive in the conquest of foreign trade, and they attribute England's participation in this war to her jealousy of their rapidly growing foreign commerce and of their splendid merchant marine. It would be tedious to enumerate the items of German exports and imports, but we will give some significant statistics. In 1908 the total value of Germany's exports was $1,577,075,000; of imports, $1,965,000,000. In 1913 the exports amounted to $2,212,000,000, and the imports to $2,602,450,000. By way of comparison we may say that during the same year Great Britain's exports amounted to $3,090,900,000, and her imports to $3,742,628,000. The corresponding figures for the United States are: Exports, $2,363,740,000, and imports, $1,764,500,000. By reason of this war Germany has placed in jeopardy a total yearly trade with England of $477,000,000; with France, $295,596,000; and with Russia, $521,504,000. Whatever be the military outcome of the war, the shock sustained by German commerce must be terrific.

In 1914 there were registered under the German flag 2,321 vessels exceeding 100 tons measurement, with a total tonnage of 5,082,061, compared with 11,287 vessels under the British flag, with a tonnage of 20,431,543. At this writing there is hardly a German ship upon the high seas.

The railways of Germany are nearly all State-owned. Out of a total mileage of 39,065, all but 2,926 belong to the various State systems. Of these, 44 miles are classed as "royal military." The railways represent a capital investment of $4,380,000,000. In 1913 their combined receipts were $799,740,000, and they yielded to the Government profits of $272,982,000 (6.23 per cent.). They carry annually about 1,643,000,000 passengers and 570,741,000 metric tons of freight.

Germany has a magnificent system of interior waterways, her rivers having been augmented by many canals, among which the

Kaiser-Wilhelm Canal, 61¼ miles long, connecting the Baltic with the North Sea between Kiel and the estuary of the Elbe, is the most interesting at present because of its great naval significance. Incidentally, we may mention that the locks of the Kaiser-Wilhelm Canal are about 70 per cent. larger than those of the Panama Canal. Other great interior artificial waterways are the Dortmund-Ems Canal (161½ miles), and the Elbe-Trave Canal (42 miles). In all, the in-

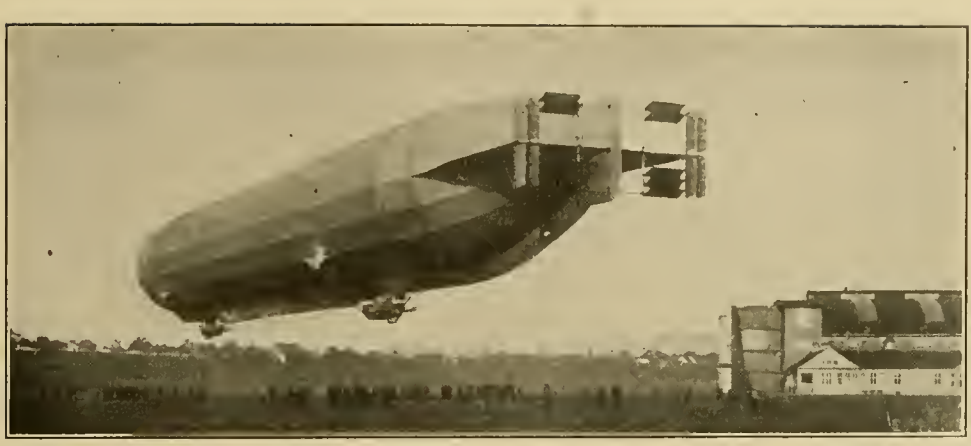
German Cavalry Crossing a Stream, Horses Propelling the Boat

ternal navigable waterways, canals, and rivers of the German Empire have a total length of 8,832 miles.

The German Empire does not form a postal unit, as Bavaria and Wurttemberg have their own postal systems. The rest of the empire, however, forms an "imperial postal district." In the empire there are 41,192 post offices, of which 5,308 are in Bavaria and 1,194 in Wurttemberg. In 1912, 10,149,726,670 pieces of mail-matter—of which 3,405,372,400 were letters and 2,045,192,610 post-cards—passed through German post offices, and $13,404,000,000 was sent in money-orders. The postal service yielded the empire (Bavaria and Wurttemberg included) the handsome surplus of $28,110,717, which is in striking contrast with the operations of our own department.

The empire has about 144,000 miles of telegraph line, with 449,600 miles of wire, and 4,175,000 miles of telephone wire. The telephone was used in Germany last year to the extent of about 2,327,000,000 conversations.

The standard coin of Germany is the mark, the equivalent of which in American money is $0.238.



German Zeppelin Maneuvering

Inasmuch as the German colonies are now exposed to attack the following list of the German possessions will be of interest:

In Africa—Togo, Kamerun, German Southwest Africa, German East Africa—with a total estimated area of 931,460 square miles and an estimated population of 11,422,000, of whom only 22,405 are white.

In Asia—Kiauchau, Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, Bismarck Archipelago, Caroline Islands, Palau Islands, Marianne Islands, Salomon Islands, Marshall Islands, and the Samoan Islands—with a total area of about 96,000 square miles and a population of about 635,000.

In all, the German colonial possessions have an estimated area of 1,027,820 square miles, and a population of 12,041,603, of whom only 24,389 are white.

The capital of the German Empire is Berlin (population 2,071,257). Other large cities are: Hamburg (931,035), Munich (596,467), Leipsic (589,850), Dresden (548,308), Cologne (516,527), Breslau (512,105), Frankfort-on-the-Main (414,576), Düsseldorf (358,728), Nürnberg (333,142), Charlottenburg (305,978).

On July 31, 1914, the emperor demanded that mobilization in Russia be discontinued, and immediately martial law was proclaimed throughout the German Empire. The next day war was declared against Russia, and on August 2 Russian forces entered Germany. On August 3 three German armies were set in motion against France, and the next day Germany declared war against that country.

GEORGE V

King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the British Dominions Beyond the Seas, Emperor of India. Born in London, June 3, 1865. Son of Edward VII and of Alexandra, Princess of Denmark. Succeeded on the death of his father, May 6, 1910. Married, July 6, 1893, Victoria Mary, Princess of Teck

The British Empire.—The British Empire occupies about one quarter of the known land-surface of the globe. Its population exceeds one quarter of the estimated number of the human beings, and includes nearly every race and every religion.

The United Kingdom consists of England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland.

England, comprising, with Wales, the southern portion of the island of Great Britain, covers an area of 58,320 square miles, and corresponds in latitude with Northern Germany and the Netherlands. It is nearly triangular, and is surrounded by the sea, except for a distance of seventy miles on the Scottish border. The coast is much indented, particularly on the Atlantic side. The total length of the coast-line is estimated at 2,000 miles. No part of the country is farther than fifty miles from the sea, or from one of its arms. Of the inlets, the most important are the Humber, the Wash, and the mouth of the Thames on the east coast; Portsmouth Harbor, Southampton Water, Tor Bay, and Plymouth Sound on the south; and the Bristol Channel, Milford Haven, the Mersey, and Morecambe Bay on the west. Off the coast there are several islands, or groups of islands, the most important of which are the Channel Islands (Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark); the Scilly Islands off Land's End; and the Isle of Man, in the Irish Sea. The Isle of Wight and Anglesey are so close to the mainland that they almost touch the coast.

The coast is constantly changing. Many old towns, such as Ravenspur in Yorkshire—where Bolingbroke, afterward Henry IV, landed in 1399—are now submerged; and it is a common occurrence for the pedestrian rambling over the cliffs of Kent, Yorkshire, or Sussex to find the path ending abruptly, interrupted by a precipice. In some places the action of the waves is so rapid that the changes may be followed from week to week. "Over a distance of thirty-six miles between Bridlington and Kilnsea," says Professor Phillips, "the materials which fall from the wasting cliff are sorted by the tide; the whole shore is in motion; every cliff is hastening to its fall; the parishes are contracted, the churches wasted away."

As regards physical structure, England has been described as "an epitome of the geology of almost the whole of Europe." Nearly all the formations of the earth's crust, from the Silurian upward to the

John Bartholomew & Co.

most recent deposits, are found in layers in different parts of the country—mainly in order from north to south.

In conformity with the geological structure of England, its mountains lie in the north and west, rolling gently toward the center and south. The Cheviot Hills, running almost directly east and west, form a gentle natural boundary between England and Scotland.

Their highest summit, Cheviot Peak in Northumberland, rises 2,676 feet above the sea. This chain merges southwestward into the mountain ranges of Cumberland and Westmoreland, and within these ranges is the celebrated Lake District, where lie the only notable lakes in England, the largest of which, Windermere, covers only eight square miles. From the Cheviots the Pennine Range runs at right angles, continuing south into Derbyshire, where the famous Peak rises (2,088 feet), five miles northwest of Castleton, with its celebrated caverns. South of the Peak district extends the central plain, or plateau, about five hundred feet above the sea-level. On the south are Salisbury Plain, a tract of rolling downs with barrows and ancient remains, including the famous Stonehenge: the Chilterns; the Marlborough Downs; the North Downs; and the South Downs. The mountains rise again in Wales, attaining their greatest height in the Snowdon Range (3,571 feet). Then the chain running through Gloucestershire, Wilts, and Somerset rises into a high tableland in Devonshire, reaching its height in Dartmoor Forest (1,500 feet), and declining gradually to the Land's End. As the mountains are chiefly in the west, the principal rivers flow toward the east. Of the navigable streams, the most important is the Thames. Rising in the Cotswold Hills above Oxford, where it is known as the Isis, it flows through sylvan scenery, a narrow, silvery thread of water; but at London Bridge it has a width of 266 yards, and below Gravesend it expands into an estuary five miles wide at the Nore. The tide ascends to Teddington, the upper limit of the port of London. Vessels of 4,000 tons reach Blackwall; river steamers go, by means of locks, to Oxford; barges to Leehlade; and small barges to Cricklade. The great forests of masts and lines of smokestacks in the miles of docks are a never-forgotten sight. The stretch between the Tower and Wapping Old Stairs, called the Pool, is always full of shipping. The Thames, therefore, is a river of contrasts. Essentially a pleasure stream in its

Admiral Sir John Jellicoe, Commanding the North Sea Fleet

The Rt. Hon. Winston Spencer Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty

Sir Edward Grey, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs

The Rt. Hon. Herbert Henry Asquith, Prime Minister

BRITISH ADMIRAL AND DISTINGUISHED POLITICAL LEADERS

upper reaches, winding through meadows and past lordly homes, ancient castles, and such historic places as Windsor, Runnymede, Eton, and Hampton Court, always bright and alive with row-boats, and often the scene of regattas, as at Henley and Kingston, it becomes at London a dark and somber river, spanned by great bridges and attracting to its heart the varied shipping of the world. Every imaginable craft gathers here, from coal-barges with their heavy, bronzed red sails to the East-India merchantman and the ocean liner.

Bank of England—London

Royal Exchange—London

Next in importance to the Thames comes the Humber, formed by the Trent and the Ouse, draining about one sixth of England. The Witham, the Welland, and the Nen flow into the estuary of the Wash.

On the west the chief river is the Severn, its headwaters parted from the Thames by the Cotswold Hills. Like the Thames, it begins its career of two hundred miles in gentle meadows, and flows through historic and romantic scenery. Then it winds through Shropshire and Worcestershire to Tewkesbury and Gloucester, to which point ascends a tidal wave, or "bore."

One of the Severn's tributaries is the peaceful Warwickshire Avon, which joins it at Tewkesbury, after passing Stratford, famous as the birthplace of Shakespeare. The Avon, entering the Bristol Channel six miles below Bristol, is subject to spring tides of forty feet.

FIELD MARSHAL EARL KITCHENER OF KHARTUM
British Secretary of State for War

Next in commercial importance to the Thames comes the Mersey, winding through Lancashire and Cheshire, receiving the Irwell, and expanding at Liverpool into a wide estuary.

Into the English Channel flow the Sussex Ouse, the Itchen, and the Axe, Teign, Dart, Tamar, and Exe—all remarkable for picturesque scenery.

Internal communication is served to some extent by canals and rivers, but mainly by railways. The canal system connects the west of England with the north, and the east with the south. Together it presents, with the navigable rivers, a waterway of 5,000 miles, the canals amounting to about 3,200 miles. The Bridgewater system and the Ship Canal give Liverpool and Manchester water connection.

The long coast-line is marked by numerous and easily accessible harbors. Some of these are purely natural; others have been improved by artificial harbor-works. The greatest ports are London and Liverpool.

The continental ports are Hull, Grimsby, Harwich, Folkestone, and Dover. The chief fishing-ports are Grimsby, Boston, Dover, Yarmouth, and Lowestoft. London, Liverpool, and Bristol are great marts for American cotton; while the coal and metal ports are Cardiff, Newport, and Swansea (in Wales), and, on the Tyne and the northeast coast, Newcastle, the Shields, Sunderland, and Middlesborough.

The coal of Great Britain (about 230,000,000 tons annually) is mined mainly in Yorkshire, South Durham, Glamorgan, Monmouth, Derby, Nottingham, Northumberland, Lancashire, Staffordshire, and Lanarkshire. Iron is mined in South Stafford, North Yorkshire, South Durham, South Wales, Barrow, Middlesborough, and the Black Country; tin is worked in Devon and Cornwall; and salt is produced in Cheshire and Worcestershire.

The chief manufactures have grown up mainly on the great coalfields, the woollen industry in the West Riding of Yorkshire, the cotton industry in Lancashire; hosiery, etc., in Derby and Nottingham; potteries and iron in Staffordshire; iron and metal industries in Middlesborough, South Durham, South Staffordshire, and South Wales; chemical and other industries in St. Helen's, Newcastle, and Birmingham; shipbuilding on the Tyne. To these may be added the manufacture of machinery in Birmingham, Manchester, Bolton, and

other industrial centers; agricultural machinery in Ipswich, Lincoln, and Bedford; railway engines and stock in the railway centers of Crewe, Derby, and Swindon; leather in Northampton, Bristol, Leicester, Birmingham, Walsall, and London; and cutlery in Sheffield.

Notwithstanding its natural advantages, England has been regarded as backward in its agriculture. This is owing to the great advantages the country possesses for the prosecution of manufacture. Its wheat capacity is high, however—thirty bushels to an acre. Wheat

British troops at maneuvers. The band around the cap shows they are of the "White Army"

is grown chiefly in the eastern counties, Shropshire, and the southwest. Other cereals grow well in the north. Cattle and dairy-farming form an occupation of the counties of Cheshire, Devonshire, and Staffordshire. Sheep are plentiful in the counties of Nottingham, Leicester, Rutland, Northampton, Lincoln, Yorkshire, Devonshire, and other southern counties.

Affected by its insular position and by the Gulf Stream, the climate of England is much milder than that of any other country in the same latitude on the Continent of Europe, or in America. England has been therefore described as "a great hothouse kept above the surrounding temperature by never-ending currents of warm air." The Gulf Stream brings both warmth and moisture, and as warm, moist

winds from the southwest prevail, much rain is discharged all over the land. All these causes render the ground extremely fertile. Notwithstanding the wonderful greenness of the grass, the luxuriance of the foliage, and the brightness of the colors of many flowers that make the gardens of England dreams of beauty, the sun shines feebly, and many fruits and vegetables ripen only upon walls and trellises, or under glass. Peaches, tomatoes, nectarines, and apricots, common enough in America, are, therefore, luxuries in the British Isles.

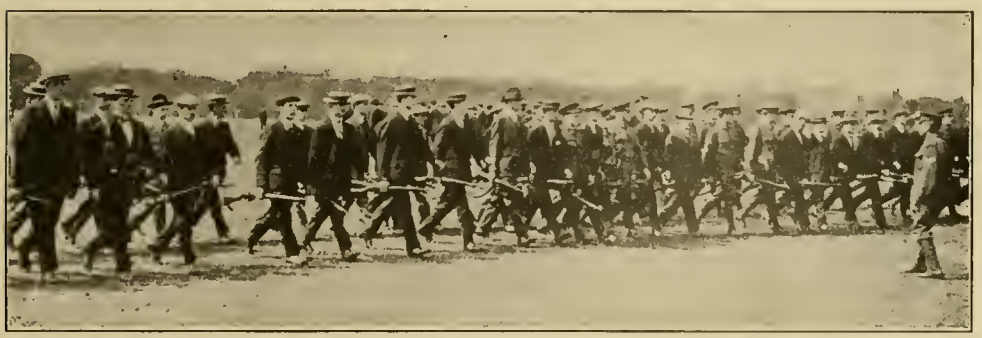
Nearly all England is settled and cultivated, although well-wooded land is common; but such districts belong to old estates, or to royal domains, or are reservations belonging to the public and known as "Forests," such as Epping Forest, the New Forest, Dean, and Salcey. These might be more appropriately called parks, as they are carefully superintended by "forest-rangers" and are in fact extensive pleasure-grounds, with little suggestion of native wildness. They are diversified with patches of heath between the groves of trees, stretches of emerald sward, and occasional hamlets. Epping Forest, ten miles from London, for example, comprises 5,300 acres, being only a remnant of the great Waltham Forest. New Forest, in Hampshire, covers 62,648 acres of woodland, interspersed with open glades and stretches of moor and marsh, quaint old villages, churches, and ruins of abbeys and monasteries. It was enclosed by William the Conqueror in 1079. In the extreme west and in Yorkshire the bleak moorlands, and in the southern counties the downs, are characteristic, as are the chalk-cliffs on the southern shore, broken by gaps and topped with verdure.

Altogether, with its mountains, rivers, valleys, lakes, moors, dales, meadows, marshes (such as the Norfolk Broads), forests, parks, chalk-cliffs, and downs, England makes a strong appeal to the lover of beautiful scenery that possesses the additional charm of historic and legendary interest. Ancient and splendid architecture—cathedrals, castles, old abbeys, and ancestral homes of lords and country gentlemen, as well as picturesque inns and cottages of the lowly—all enclosed in soft frames of trees and hedges—combine in producing a series of delightful pictures, unlike those offered by any other country, to which the peculiar mistiness of the atmosphere gives an indescribable delicacy and depth of tint and color.

Field Marshal Sir John French, Regarded as the Greatest Living Cavalry Commander

Admiral Sir George Callaghan, of the War Staff of the Admiralty

London, with its population of more than seven millions, is the largest city in the world. Its age is lost in antiquity. What is known as the City—the district enclosed within a wall in olden days—lies on the north bank of the Thames, stretching between the river and Finsbury, and from the Tower to the site of Temple Bar (now removed). In both size and shape it corresponds very nearly to ancient Roman London, and its chief thoroughfares—Cannon Street, Cheapside, Bishopsgate Street, and others—run over the sites of Roman roads. Four bridges—Blackfriars, Southwark, London, and Tower—connect the City with the Borough of Southwark. The Tower of Lon-



English Recruits Drilling in Hyde Park

don is an epitome of English history. Within the City are such famous buildings as St. Paul's Cathedral, the Mansion House (the official residence of the Lord Mayor), the Bank of England, the Post-office (enclosing a portion of the old Roman wall), St. Bartholomew's Church in Smithfield (the finest example of Norman architecture in London), and the Monument commemorating the Great Fire of 1666.

Temple Bar, at the junction of Fleet Street and the Strand, marked the beginning of the City of Westminster, the greatest borough of Greater London. Architecturally and historically, Westminster ranks next in interest to the City. On its river-front in the old days stood the great houses of princes and nobles, now occupied by the Victoria Embankment between Blackfriars and Westminster bridges. At the west end of the Strand is Trafalgar Square, containing Nelson's column guarded by Landseer's four lions, not far from the National Gallery and St. Martin's-in-the-Fields. The Houses of Parliament, Westminster Abbey, and Whitehall lie south of Trafal-

gar Square, and north of it one passes up the Haymarket to the great "west end" circle—Piccadilly Circus, from which radiate various thoroughfares. In this district Pall Mall leads to Buckingham Palace, with its spacious grounds. Vast London is not only interesting because of its monuments and historical associations, but for its swarming crowds of humanity, ever moving in a steady stream and representing every class from persons of the most magnificent state to those of the most sodden and squalid condition.

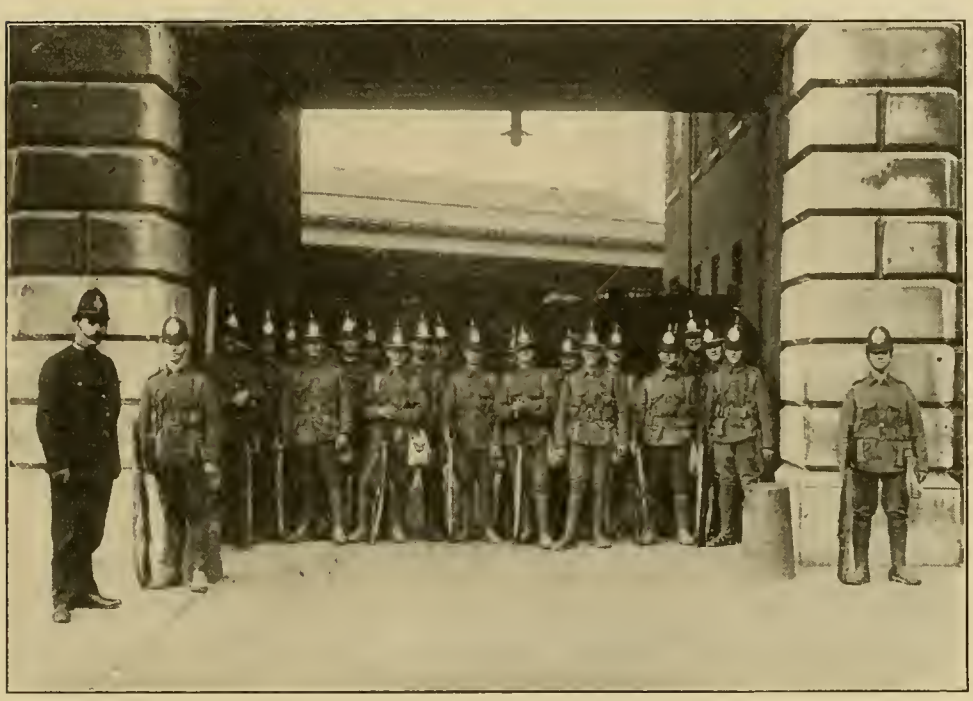
Among England's greatest treasures is Oxford, the seat of the oldest English university, with a history dating from 912, when it was recovered by King Edward from the Danes. It began to be a college town in 1214. With its churches of St. Michael, St. Peter's in the East, St. Cross, and Christ Church Cathedral, Oxford would be renowned for architecture of great beauty; but to these are added more than twenty colleges that are gems of medieval art. The celebrated Bodleian Library, restored by Sir Thomas Bodley in 1598, with its magnificent collection of manuscript volumes (30,000 to 40,000) and 700,000 books—the public library of Oxford University—ranks with the British Museum as one of England's most glorious possessions.

Cambridge vies with Oxford in splendid architecture. King's College and Queen's College, founded in 1441 and 1448, are beautiful specimens of stone work, wood work, and glass. Clare College is even more admired by some critics.

The great cathedrals of Canterbury, Durham, Ely, Exeter, Gloucester, Hereford, Lichfield, Lincoln, Norwich, Peterborough, Ripon, Rochester, St. Albans, Salisbury, Southwark, Wells, Winchester, Worcester, and York exhibit many features that are unlike the architecture of the Continent. All have been built and rebuilt on sites consecrated to religious uses even before the days of Christianity.

In the days of King Cnut (or Canute) England began to enter into the affairs of the outside world. Cnut, like most great conquerors, was an able administrator. Once safely on the throne, he began to govern. Sending back to Denmark his famous army, he kept a body of chosen housecarls—Danes, English, and others, noted for bravery—around his throne, the first standing army known in England. Up to this time the title had been King of the English, never

King of England. Cnut used the special style of King of all England (*Rex totius Angliæ*). In his reign, too, the relations between England and Normandy began to be of great importance, and the seeds were sown that ripened into the Norman Conquest. The enormous empire that obeyed Cnut's scepter, consisting of scattered islands and peninsulas, was too large and disconnected to hold together. The election of Edward the Confessor to the throne was in



A Detachment of English Infantry

some measure the beginning of the Norman Conquest. Edward had been educated in Normandy, spoke the Norman tongue; and more Norman than English, he filled every post at court with Norman favorites, who soon plotted against Englishmen; and a Norman monk, Robert of Jumièges, was made Archbishop of Canterbury.

The actual Norman Conquest came in 1066. The spirit of Englishmen was aroused by the return of Godwine and his sons, and the nation rose to receive them. The army that the king called together refused to fight against the deliverers, the citizens of London decreed

WINSTON CHURCHILL
First Lord of the Admiralty

FIELD MARSHAL SIR JOHN D. P. FRENCH,
Commanding the British Forces in France

the banishment of the archbishop and other Normans in power, and Norman influence in public affairs was ended. "England for the English" was the cry. Under Harold, England held a high place at home and abroad. The story of his relations with Duke William of Normandy is variously told; but it is generally accepted that he was shipwrecked on the coast of Normandy, was imprisoned there, and was released by the aid of William, to whom he swore an oath that he would help William to obtain the succession. Thus the crown of England became a personal matter between William of Normandy and Harold.

The Norman Conquest was a great revolution for England. It rooted up ancient traditions and changed the European position of the realm. Britain was ruled by a continental prince, who introduced foreign ideas and customs into a country partially prepared to accept them. French became the fashionable language, as Latin was the language of the learned. Architecture was changed. The Norman abbots and bishops pulled down old minsters and erected churches on a gigantic scale never before seen in England; and Norman castles, begun in the days of Edward the Confessor, were multiplied. The Tower of London reared its massive keep; great changes were made in the art of fortification; and new fashions in dress and diet, as well as in manners, regulated society. The Normans also brought in foreign merchants and scholars and much that added to the arts and graces of life. It was largely owing to the Norman influence upon society that England took part in the Crusades. In fact, Normandy and the Normans mean so much in the relation of England to the history of the European Continent that some knowledge of the old French duchy is necessary for a full understanding of the question. The Norman (a softened form of the name Northmen) is distinguished from the latter by his adoption of the French language and the Christian religion. Normandy, which, in its strict sense, was the seaboard of France between Brittany on one side and Flanders on the other, therefore lies directly opposite Great Britain. It was occupied early in the tenth century by the Northmen. To the original territory William I added more land; and thus the settlement of Rolf at Rouen grew into the Duchy of Normandy. France was but a rival dukedom, and as long as the Norman duchy had an independent being, it

was interposed between England and France. France and Normandy were two great rival duchies. No diplomacy could adjust their troubles; and this rivalry was a most important element in the history of Europe. England took up Normandy's cause. France was divided in speech and sentiment; the kings of Laon, on the east, were Germanic; the great country of Flanders spoke Low Dutch; Breton, in the west, was Celtic; the lands south of the Loire had a variety of the Romance language; while in the center lay the Duchy of France, of which Paris was the center and cradle—land of the newborn French speech and French nationality.

The rise of Normandy, a power torn from the side of France which cut off Paris and the whole Duchy of France from the sea, had been a great blow to French interest. Both were vassal States of the Carlovingian king at Laon, who, notwithstanding his dignity, was a prince of smaller power than either of his mighty vassals. In the tenth century, Normandy rose against Laon, and Rouen, once friendly to Laon and hostile to Paris, changed her policy. Normandy became the faithful and powerful ally of France; and the Norman duchy had a large share in helping Hugh Capet of Paris to the crown. Normandy thus turned the balance of power in favor of the French, ruling that France should be the chief power in Gaul; that the Duke of the French and King of France be one and the same person, and Paris the ruling city. The Duke of Normandy thus became the most cherished vassal of the king. Though Normandy owed to France its introduction to the Christian and Romance-speaking world, and France owed to Normandy its new position among the Powers of Gaul, feelings of rivalry and dislike cropped up now and then. The old border district, Vexin, between Rouen and Paris, was often a bone of contention.

After the accession of William I, periods of enmity alternated with periods of friendship. William established his authority over rival factions in the fight of Val-ès-dunes, and thereafter made his Duchy of Normandy not only one of the most flourishing parts of Gaul, but of Europe as well. He repaid the King of France's help at Val-ès-dunes by assistance in his wars with Geoffrey of Anjou. This led to a long rivalry between Anjou and Normandy, which resulted in a struggle for Maine, lying between the two. In 1048 Wil-

A Detachment of England's "Women's Nursing Yeomanry Corps"

liam extended his frontier there, and in 1063 he obtained possession of Le Mans.

The conquest of England by William changed the position of the duchy as a European Power. In one sense its position was lowered; but, on the other hand, it became part of a Power far greater than the Duchy of Normandy had ever been. For a long time the sovereign of the two lands was able to use the strength of England for Norman purposes. Much of the best that was in Normandy, as regards blood, talent, and performance, crossed the Channel into the conquered kingdom. Under the Angevin house, Normandy and England became parts of one of those heterogeneous dominions like that of Burgundy under the Valois dukes. Normandy handed on to England its old enmity toward France.

After the death of William the Conqueror, Normandy fell into anarchy; and after various parts of the duchy were lost and won and lost again, Henry invaded it, and, at the Battle of Tinchbrai, in 1106, united the kingdom and duchy once again.

It was now not the Duke of Normandy who ruled in England, but the King of the English who ruled in Normandy. It is noticc-

able that the two great Norman rulers—Henry of England and Robert of Sicily—each kept his island kingdom in perfect peace while he used his continental territory as a battle-ground.

Henry absorbed another duchy to his possessions by marrying his daughter to Geoffrey Plantagenet, son of Falk, Count of Anjou and Maine.

Geoffrey gradually possessed himself of Normandy, and in 1150 resigned the duchy to his son Henry, who in 1152 married Eleanor, the divorced wife of Louis VII, Countess in her own right of Poitou and Duchess of Aquitaine. Henry, through his father, mother, and wife, had a collection of dominions that made him more powerful than his overlord, the King of the French. In 1154, therefore, began the memorable thirty-five years' reign of Henry II, King of England. During his reign and that of his eldest son, the connection between England and the Continent was closer than ever. On the death of Richard in 1199, John's succession was admitted in both England and Normandy. The French king, Philip Augustus, seized Normandy in 1203-'04; but the Channel Islands—Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark—still held to the duke and have since remained in the possession of the kings of England, though they never have been incorporated into the United Kingdom.

Freeman writes: "The fact that the English kings kept Aquitaine after the loss of Normandy—for the inheritance of Eleanor was not forfeited by the crime of her son—was the immediate occasion of many of the later disputes between England and France; but the traditional feeling was handed on from the days when Englishmen and Normans fought side by side against Frenchmen. In Normandy itself, the memory of the connection with England soon died out. We read—and it seems strange as we read—of the quarrels which, in the days of Edward I, arose between the crowns of England and France out of the disputes between Norman subjects of France and Gascon subjects of England."

On the reign of Henry II the fusion of English and Norman was complete; the English nation was united. The fame of England was spread throughout all lands by her share in the Crusades, and another jewel was added to the crown by the conquest, or half-conquest, of Ireland. Henry also took back the earldoms of Northumberland and

Cumberland on the Scottish frontier, and warred endlessly on the Welsh frontier. Wales was conquered and made a part of the kingdom in the reign of Edward I. The Scottish crown was more difficult to acquire. The struggles were long and full of romantic incident, producing such heroes as William Wallace and Robert Bruce, and a host of border ballads and songs. The old saying that if the King of England would win and preserve French territory, he must first suppress Scotland, sent the flower of English chivalry to Bannockburn and Flodden Field. The French aided the Scots; and the English made alliance with the Flemings. Then followed the Hundred Years' War.

With the loss of Bordeaux in 1453, after the death of the great Earl of Shrewsbury, the tie of three hundred years which united England and Aquitaine was broken. England now held no continental possessions but Calais, Boulogne, Dunkirk, and Gibraltar. The entire relations of France and England were changed, and their modern relations date from this period.

England now gradually drew into shape; but not without great and bloody internal dissensions, such as the Wars of the Roses, Henry VIII's overthrow of papal supremacy and instituting himself as "Supreme Head on Earth of the Church of England"; the persecutions alternately of Roman Catholics and Protestants; the suppression of the monasteries, and the consequent pilgrimage of grace, doubly a political and religious movement; the rise of the Puritan party; the overthrow of Charles I and his execution; the Protectorate, anarchy, and restoration of the monarchy; the rise of the Whigs and Tories; and the revolution that transformed the ultimate decision from the king to parliament.

William, Prince of Orange, invited in 1689 to take the throne with his wife Mary (a Stuart), by the advice of the Earl of Sunderland, called into existence a body destined to be of great importance in government—the cabinet—selected from the leading members of both houses of parliament.

In the reign of Queen Anne, the Duke of Marlborough, by his supreme genius won great prestige for English arms at Blenheim, which drove the French out of Germany (1704); and at Ramillies, which drove them out of the Netherlands (1706). The incapacity of

The Grenadier Guards Passing Buckingham Palace—Members of the Royal Family at the Gate

the foreign-born Hanoverians—George I and George II—was balanced by the efficiency of Walpole, prime minister in both reigns. He gradually altered the English constitution from a hereditary monarchy into a parliamentary government, the forms of the constitution becoming in all essentials what they are now.

England went through a great period of change during the Seven Years' War (1756-1763). England and Prussia formed an alliance against Austria, France, Russia, and the German princes. Pitt's object, to make England the foremost colonial and maritime power in the world, was accomplished.

The Battle of Plassey gave Bengal into Clive's hands in 1757; Quebec fell before Wolfe in 1759; and Sir Eyre Coote's victory at Wandewash in 1760 crushed French authority in southern India.

At the coronation of George III a jewel fell from his crown. It was a bad omen. The passage of the Stamp Act (1765) eventually led to the American War for Independence, and the thirteen populous

and important colonies were lost forever. In 1783 the Treaties of Paris and Versailles ended the war, and the independence of the United States of America was recognized. Before peace was made, Lord North had fallen and the Whigs had again taken office. The death of their leader, Lord Rockingham, in 1782, threw them into confusion, and then the coalition of Fox and North was formed. This proved unpopular; William Pitt was placed at the head of affairs, and he remained prime minister until 1801. His ministry witnessed the industrial revolution that made England the first manufacturing country in the world, and this coincided with a remarkable development of England's imperial responsibilities. Numerous India bills, a more enlightened view with regard to Ireland, and a tendency toward reform, financial, political, and social, represent the principal effects of the American war upon home politics. Pitt, to keep the peace of Europe as far as possible and to restore England's prestige, formed, in 1788, with Prussia and Holland, the Triple Alliance. Pitt's reforming and peace policy was much checked by the French Revolution. In 1793 France forced England into a war; and until the Peace of Amiens, in 1802, hostilities with France continued in all parts of the world. A rebellion in Ireland in 1798 led to the union of England and Ireland in 1800. War was renewed in 1803 between England and France, on account of Napoleon's ambition to gain command of the sea and to ruin England's commercial and colonial policy.

In 1810 Wellesley (now known as the Duke of Wellington) beat back the masses of French forces under Massena, and in 1812 he won the Battle of Salamanca. In that year, too, Napoleon wrecked his finest army in the snows of Russia. The failure of the Moscow expedition was followed by the defeat at Leipsic and the invasion of France by the allies. In 1814 Napoleon was driven into exile at Elba. His escape and his seizure of the throne, in 1815, began with good auspices for a third period of triumph; but fortune deserted him. All Europe declared against him, and the crushing blow was given by Wellington at Waterloo in 1815.

England came out of the Napoleonic wars with increased prestige and additional possessions. Nelson's battle of the Nile, in 1798, marked an epoch in British naval history; and Trafalgar (1805),

A Scottish Regiment Passing Through London

dearly bought with the life of the great admiral, ended once for all Napoleon's plan for invading England. The army that afterward subdued the Continent had been concentrated along the cliffs of Boulogne and the descent was to be covered by a great fleet under Villeneuve. Nelson gave chase to Villeneuve, and caught him off the Cape of Trafalgar.

To the laurels won at sea by Nelson England added those won on land by the Duke of Wellington in the campaign in Spain as well as at Waterloo.

The Victorian age, under the ministry of Peel, Russell, Palmerston, Disraeli, Gladstone, and Salisbury, saw a remarkable development in every department of national life. The United Kingdom expanded into an empire. British possessions in India and Africa were extended; Hongkong was acquired; the Australian Colonies rose to importance; a rising of the Zulus in 1879 resulted in the conquest of Zululand; and a war with the Boers in 1899-1902 brought about the annexation of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.

From Nelson's "War Atlas."

COLONIAL FORCES OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

This Block Map Shows the Members of the British Empire on a Uniform Scale, and Gives the Numbers of Troops—Regulars, Militia, or Volunteers—Available for Defence. All the British Colonies Have Sent Large Contingents to Augment the Imperial Forces, Except South Africa, to Which Has Been Assigned the Task of Operating Against the Adjacent German Colonies

The chief events in the reign of Edward VII (1901-'10) were the departure from traditional foreign policy in the alliance with Japan; the *entente* between Great Britain and France; numerous arbitration policies; the formation of the Union of South Africa; and the king's strong peace policy.

In 1908, on the fiftieth anniversary of Queen Victoria's proclamation transferring the government of India from the East India Company to the Crown, a message from King Edward VII to the princes and peoples of India reviewed the progress made during the half century and promised an extension of representative government. In the following year Lord Morley, Secretary of State for India, announced a scheme for native representation in the executive councils of the viceroy and of the provinces and in the council of the secretary of state at Whitehall.

The Durbar at which King George V in person was proclaimed Emperor of India (December, 1911), was noticeable for the announcement of the removal of the imperial capital from Calcutta to Delhi.

The division of England into tithings, hundreds, and counties is generally attributed to King Alfred. English country names occur in history before the extinction of the Heptarchy. Each of the forty counties of England and twelve of Wales is still divided into hundreds, although the name ceases to have its exact meaning in many cases. Originally the division signified a district containing a hundred families. To-day some "hundreds" count their population by hundreds of thousands, while others have not gone far beyond the number that gave rise to the name.

One of the most ancient and celebrated jurisdictions of the country is the Cinque Ports. These were self-governing boroughs from an early date. The records in Rye mention that "the five Ports were enfranchised in the time of King Edward the Confessor." These five were: Hastings, Romney, Hythe, Dover, and Sandwich. To these were added Rye and Winchelsea. The Cinque Ports possess peculiar privileges in return for services that they rendered during the early Danish invasions. In 1300 Gervase Alard first took the title of "admiral of the fleet of the Cinque Ports." The Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports, with official residence at Walmer Castle, near Dover,

still exercises maritime jurisdiction and has certain other official functions.

The small area of the British Isles has necessitated England's finding for her people homes and occupations beyond the seas. Her list of colonial possessions is large. The Dominion of Canada occu-

Field Marshal Earl Roberts Inspecting Volunteers

pies the northern part of the North American Continent, with the exception of Alaska and Labrador. Newfoundland, the oldest English colony, is about three hundred miles long and three hundred miles broad; Australia, with the islands of Tasmania and New Guinea, contains 3,063,041 square miles; New Zealand, about 104,751 square miles; and South Africa, 473,100 square miles. The Indian Empire extends over a territory larger than the Continent of Europe without Russia, an area of 1,773,168 square miles. Within the Indian "sphere

of influence" lie the self-governed States of Afghanistan, Nepal, and Bhutan. The Imperial British Dominions and Protectorates that have not yet received "responsible government" are: Ascension, the Bahamas, the Barbados, Basutoland, Bechuanaland, Bermuda, Borneo, Brunei, British Guiana, British Honduras, British East and Central Africa (Somaliland, East Africa, Uganda, Zanzibar, Nyassaland), British West Africa (Gambia, the Gold Coast, Sierra Leone, and Nigeria), the British West Indies, Cayman Islands, Ceylon, Cyprus, East Africa Protectorate, Falkland Islands, Fiji, Gibraltar, Hongkong, Jamaica, Leeward Islands, Malta, Mauritius, Rhodesia, St. Helena, Sarawak, Seychelles, Straits Settlements, The Federated Malay States, Johor, Swaziland, Trinidad, Tobago, Tristan da Cunha, Turks and Caicos Islands, Weihaiwei, and the Windward Islands.

The British Constitution is mainly unwritten and customary. It is based on and has developed from certain laws, of which the chief are the Magna Charta (1215), which secured annual court sessions and the equal administration of justice; the Habeas Corpus Act (1769), which established liberty of person; the Act of Settlement (1701), which provided for the Protestant succession to the throne; the Act of Union with Scotland (1707) and the Act of Union with Ireland (1800), which created the United Kingdom; and the Parliament Act (1911), which enabled the Commons to pass certain acts without the adherence of the other chamber (House of Lords).

The crown (the king in council) "makes peace and war, issues charters, increases the peerage, is the fountain of honor, of office, and of justice." Though the executive government of Great Britain and Ireland is vested nominally in the crown, the monarchy, being constitutional and limited, is practically vested in a cabinet or a committee of nineteen ministers, whose existence is dependent on the possession of a majority in the House of Commons. As a rule, the first lord of the treasury is also the prime minister and secretary of state. The cabinet is therefore an inner council under the presidency of the prime minister. The cabinet, as a whole, is responsible to parliament for its joint and several administrations. The ministry includes minor posts, whose occupants have no seat in the cabinet. Ministers hold their office during the sovereign's pleasure. The supreme legislative power of the British Empire is given to parliament, which is summoned by

A Battalion of the Grenadier Guards

the writ of the sovereign out of chancery, by advice of the privy council, at least thirty-five days before its assembling. The present form of parliament—divided into two houses, the Lords and the Commons—dates from the middle of the fourteenth century. The House of Lords consists of peers, who hold their seats by (1) hereditary right, (2) by creation of the sovereign, (3) by virtue of office—law lords and English archbishops and bishops, (4) by election for life—Irish peers, (5) by election for the duration of parliament—Scottish peers. The full House in 1913 consisted of 613 peers. The House of Commons consists of 670 members, elected by registered male electors in county, borough and university constituencies. All clergymen are disqualified, as are also English and Scottish peers. Non-representative Irish peers are eligible. In August, 1911, provision was made for the payment of a salary of four hundred pounds a year to members of the House of Commons.

The three main principles underlying the administration of the

empire are: self-government, self-support, and self-defense. The third is of modern growth largely the outcome of the imperial conference. This has become recognized as the cabinet of the empire. Its origin is traced to the presence in London in 1887 of the premiers of the various self-governing dominions representing their countries at the jubilee of Queen Victoria. In 1907 the name of the subsequent gatherings of this nature was changed from "Colonial Conference" to "Imperial Conference." The conference is composed of: president, the prime minister of the United Kingdom; chairman, the secretary of state for the colonies; members—the prime ministers of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Union of South Africa, and Newfoundland, and two secretaries. The laws in England and Wales are administered by judges appointed by the crown, holding office for life. They cannot be removed, save on petition presented by both Houses of Parliament. The high court comprises the king's bench, chancery and probate divorce and admiralty divisions. Appeal from all courts in the United Kingdom is to the House of Lords.

The civil courts in Ireland are similar to the English courts; but the Scots civil law is entirely different. This is administered by the court of session, a court of law and equity. The high court of justiciary is the supreme criminal court in Scotland. The sheriff in each county is the proper criminal judge in petty cases.

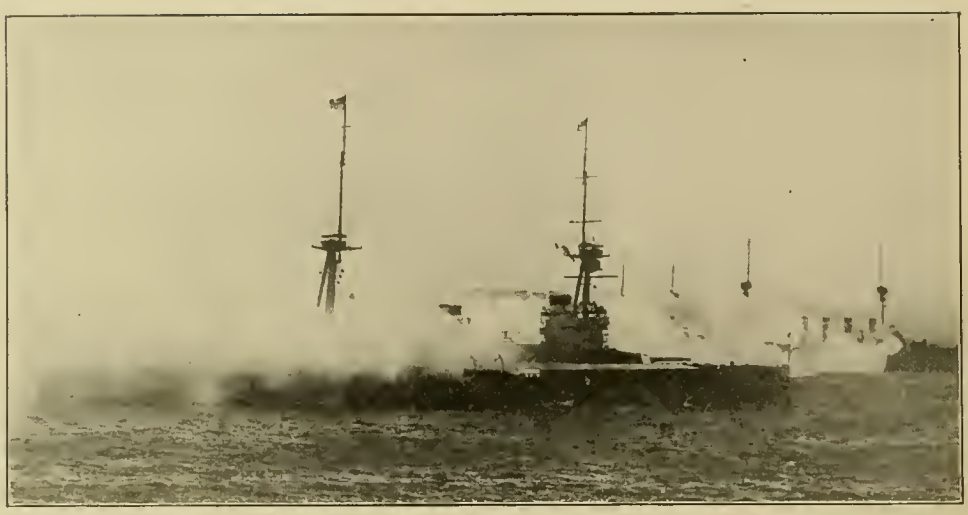
The Established Church of England is the Protestant Episcopal. The king is its head by law regulated in the time of Henry VIII, and he possesses the right to nominate archbishops and bishops. For twelve centuries England has been divided into two archbishoprics: Canterbury and York. The Archbishop of Canterbury, "the primate of *all* England," has as his province the whole of England except the six northern counties and Cheshire. These are the province of the Archbishop of York, "the primate of England." The Archbishop of Canterbury ranks next after the royal princes, and is the first peer of England. He has the right of placing the crown on the sovereign's head at the coronation. There are thirty-eight bishops, under whom are thirty-two deans and a hundred archdeacons. In 1911 the number of civil parishes was 14,614. The Roman Catholics in England and Wales are estimated at 1,800,000, with three archbishops (one of whom is a cardinal) and thirteen bishops. Other denominations—

English Territorials, Who Correspond to the American "National Guard"

Baptists, Presbyterians, Wesleyan Methodists, etc.—number about 2,428,933. The Jews represent 245,000, with two hundred synagogues. The Salvation Army has about 76,400 members, and 9,340 corps and outposts.

The Church of Scotland (established in 1560 and confirmed in 1688) is Presbyterian. The clergy are all equal. Its supreme court is a general assembly. The number of churches, chapels, etc., is 1,693. The Roman Catholic Church in Scotland numbers about 550,000, presided over by two archbishops. The Roman Catholics in Ireland number 3,242,670, against 576,611 Episcopalians, 440,525 Presbyterians, 62,382 Methodists, and 68,031 others. Four archbishops—of Armagh, Cashel, Dublin, and Tuam—with twenty-three bishops, rule the Church.

In England the highest education is given in the ancient universities of Oxford and Cambridge. Oxford has twenty-two colleges and three private halls; Cambridge, seventeen colleges and one private hall. The University of Durham, with its college of medicine, ranks high; the College of Science at Newcastle, the University of London (with twenty-four colleges), and the universities of Victoria (Manchester), Birmingham, Liverpool, Leeds, Sheffield, and Bristol and



Battle-cruiser "Inflexible" Saluting

the university colleges at Exeter, Nottingham, Reading, and Southampton, are most efficient. There are special agricultural colleges at Carlisle, Cirencester, Glasgow, Newport, Kingston-on-Soar, Wye, Uckfield, and Ripley. There are four universities in Scotland: St. Andrew's, founded in 1411; Glasgow, 1450; Aberdeen, 1494; and Edinburgh, 1582. The Carnegie Trust (1901) devotes half its income of £100,000 to the equipment and expansion of Scottish universities, and half to assisting students. Ireland has its University of Dublin, founded in 1591; the National University of Ireland (1909); and the Queen's University of Belfast.

The general defense of the empire is undertaken by the Imperial Government, aided by the Government of India, and the self-governing Dominions of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. The first line of defense is the royal navy; the second line of defense is the regular and auxiliary troops of the British navy. Questions regarding general strategy are considered and determined by the defense committee, which secures coördination between the sea and land forces of the empire.

The defense committee consists of the prime minister of the United Kingdom, secretary of state for war, first lord of the admiralty, secretaries of state for foreign affairs, colonies and India, chancellor of the exchequer, chief of the imperial general staff, first sea-

lord of the admiralty, director of military operations, and director of naval intelligence. Naval and military officers of experience are also invited to the conferences.

The royal navy is recruited by voluntary enlistment, and is administered by the commissioners for executing the office of the lord high admiral of the United Kingdom ("lords of the admiralty") con-

One of Canada's Crack Regiments—"The Queen's Own Rifles"

trolled by the king-emperor in Parliament. The admiralty office is in the historic district of Whitehall, London. The officers and men number 115,052; the marines, 18,235; and the coast-guard, 3,130. For 1914-'15 an increase of 5,000 was provided for. On January 1, 1913, the royal naval reserve numbered 20,169; the royal fleet reserve, 25,794; and the royal naval volunteers, 4,114. The total reserves numbered 50,077. The British fleet consists of about 16 super-dreadnoughts; 15 dreadnoughts; 40 pre-dreadnought battleships; 50 cruisers; 76 light cruisers; 18 torpedo gunboats; 23 sloops, gunboats, etc.;

Group of Sikhs, One of England's Finest Indian Corps

248 destroyers; 100 torpedo boats; and 85 submarines. Certain fast Cunarders are subsidized for use in case of war. In 1912 the naval wing of the royal flying corps was founded. The number of naval aëroplanes is about fifty, including school machines. There are naval air stations at the Isle of Grain, Calshott, Felixstowe, Yarmouth, Cromarty, and the Firth of Forth. Farnborough has an air-ship station, and there is a special air department at the admiralty.

The land forces of the United Kingdom consist of the regular army and the territorial army. The British army is recruited by voluntary enlistment, and is administered by an army council under the authority of the king-emperor in parliament. The training and efficiency of the army are under the inspector-general of the home forces, and a similar office has been organized recently for the oversea forces.

The war office is in Whitehall, London. The secretary of state for war is at the head, with the chief of the imperial general staff, adjutant-general to the forces, quartermaster-general to the forces, and master-general of the ordnance as first, second, third, and fourth Military Members. The service is for twelve years, with permission to

extend it to twenty-one years. The grand total of the British army is 711,575 men, including the troops serving in India (78,476).

The tropical areas of the British Empire include southern India, west and central Africa, parts of the West Indies, British Guiana and Honduras, northern Australia, Borneo, and the various settlements in the Malay Peninsula.

The estimated white population in 1911—mainly Anglo-Saxon, but including French, Dutch, Spanish, and a few Jews—is 60,000,000. The remaining 370,000,000 include: 315,000,000 of the natives of India and Ceylon, 40,000,000 of the black races, 6,000,000 Arabs, 6,000,000 Malays, 1,000,000 Chinese, 1,000,000 Polynesians, and 100,000 Red Indians in Canada.

The Indian Empire is governed by the king and emperor, acting on the advice of the secretary of state for India, who is assisted by a council appointed by that secretary. In all matters he can impose his orders on the Government of India. Indian Government business in England is transacted at the Indian office, Whitehall. The king-emperor appoints the viceroy and governor-general of India, in whom the supreme authority is vested, subject to the control of the secretary of state in England. The viceroy's council consists of seven members. Since March, 1909, one of these has been a native of India. British India is divided into provinces, with varying degrees of independence. A governor from England, appointed by the king-emperor, administers the presidencies of Madras, Bengal, and Bombay. Each has an executive and legislative council. The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, Burma, and Bihar and Orissa are administered by lieutenant-governors appointed by the governor-general, with the approval of the crown. The Central Provinces and Berar and Assam are administered by chief commissioners. In the 250 districts in British territory the highest executive official is a collector-magistrate.

On August 4, 1914, following the action of the Emperor of Russia in ordering (August 1) partial mobilization of his troops, in an intention to support Servia against Austria, and the mobilizing of the French and the German troops on the evening of the same day, Great Britain sent an ultimatum to Berlin, demanding unquali-

fied observance of the neutrality of Belgium, which had refused free passage to German troops through her domain. Germany rejected Great Britain's ultimatum and began an attack on Liège; and on the following day (August 5) Great Britain declared war on Ger-

English Hospital Sergeant and Wounded Soldiers

many, which action was followed on the 13th by a declaration of war on Austria also. On August 17 the first British troops landed in France.

They were immediately hurried to the front, and stubbornly held the left of the allied line under a series of ferocious attacks launched against them by the Germans in the now famous retreat from the Belgian frontier to within a few miles of Paris.

RUSSIA
English Miles
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ARCTIC OCEAN
North Cape
Kola Peninsula
WHITE SEA
FINLAND
Gulf of Bothnia
Gulf of Finland
BALTIC SEA
NORWAY
SWEDEN
ESTONIA
PROV. OF LIVONIA
PROV. OF COURLAND
PRUSSIA
POLAND
AUSTRIA HUNGARY
ROUMANIA
BULGARIA
BLACK SEA
SOUTH RUSSIA
ASIA MINOR
CASPIAN SEA
SIBERIA
URALSK
Kirghiz Horde
Ust-Urt Plateau
Caucasus Mts.
Sea of Azov
Sea of Aral
Novaia Zemlia
Hara Sea
Kolguev
Waigatz
Arctic Circle
Archangel
Onega
Lake Onega
Lake Ladoga
Lake Peipus
Lake Ilmen
Lake Chanty
Lake Tchany
Lake Aral
Lake Baikal
Petersburg
Moscow
Warsaw
Riga
Helsingfors
Stockholm
Christiania
Copenhagen
Archangel
Vologda
Kostroma
Nizhni Novgorod
Kazan
Perm
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Olmutz
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Pilsen
Budweis
Linz
Salzburg
Innsbruck
Klagenfurt
Laibach
Trieste
Fiume
Agram
Essek
Peterwardein
Temesvar
Arad
Klausenburg
Debreczin
Szegedin
Pesth
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Presburg
Vienna
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Turnu Severin
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Behring Strait
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Nagasaki
Shanghai
Pekin
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Port Arthur
Vladivostok
Corea
Yellow Sea
Sea of Japan
Gulf of Pechili
Great Wall of China
Gobi Desert
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Lake Balkash
Lake Zaisan
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Perm
Kazan
Simbirsk
Saratov
Tsaritsyn
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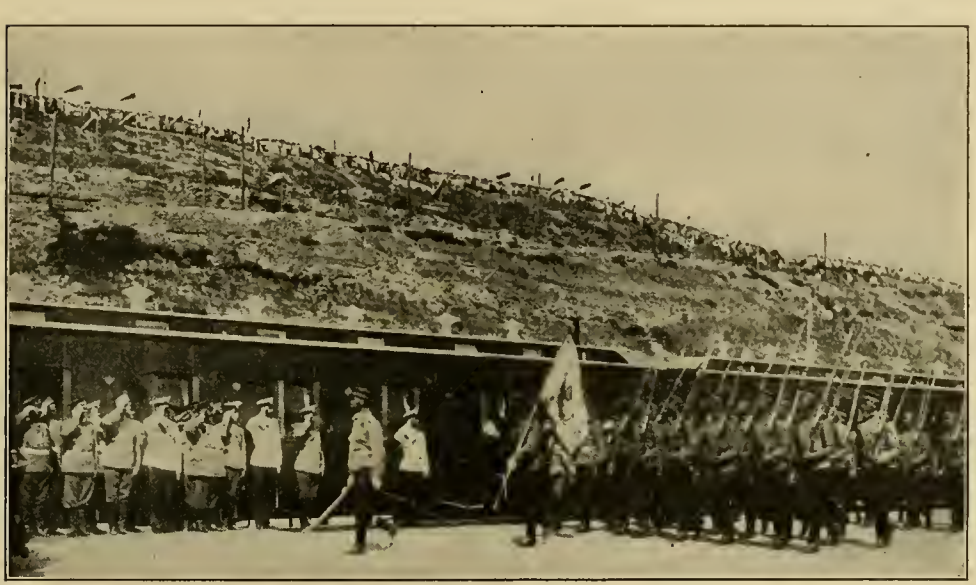
NICHOLAS (NICOLAÏ) II

Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias. Born in St. Petersburg, May 18, 1868. Son of the Emperor Alexander III and of Princess Dagmar (Mary Feodorovna) of Denmark. Succeeded, on the Death of His Father, November 1, 1894. Married, November 26, 1894, Alexandra Alix (Alexandra Feodorovna), Princess of Hesse

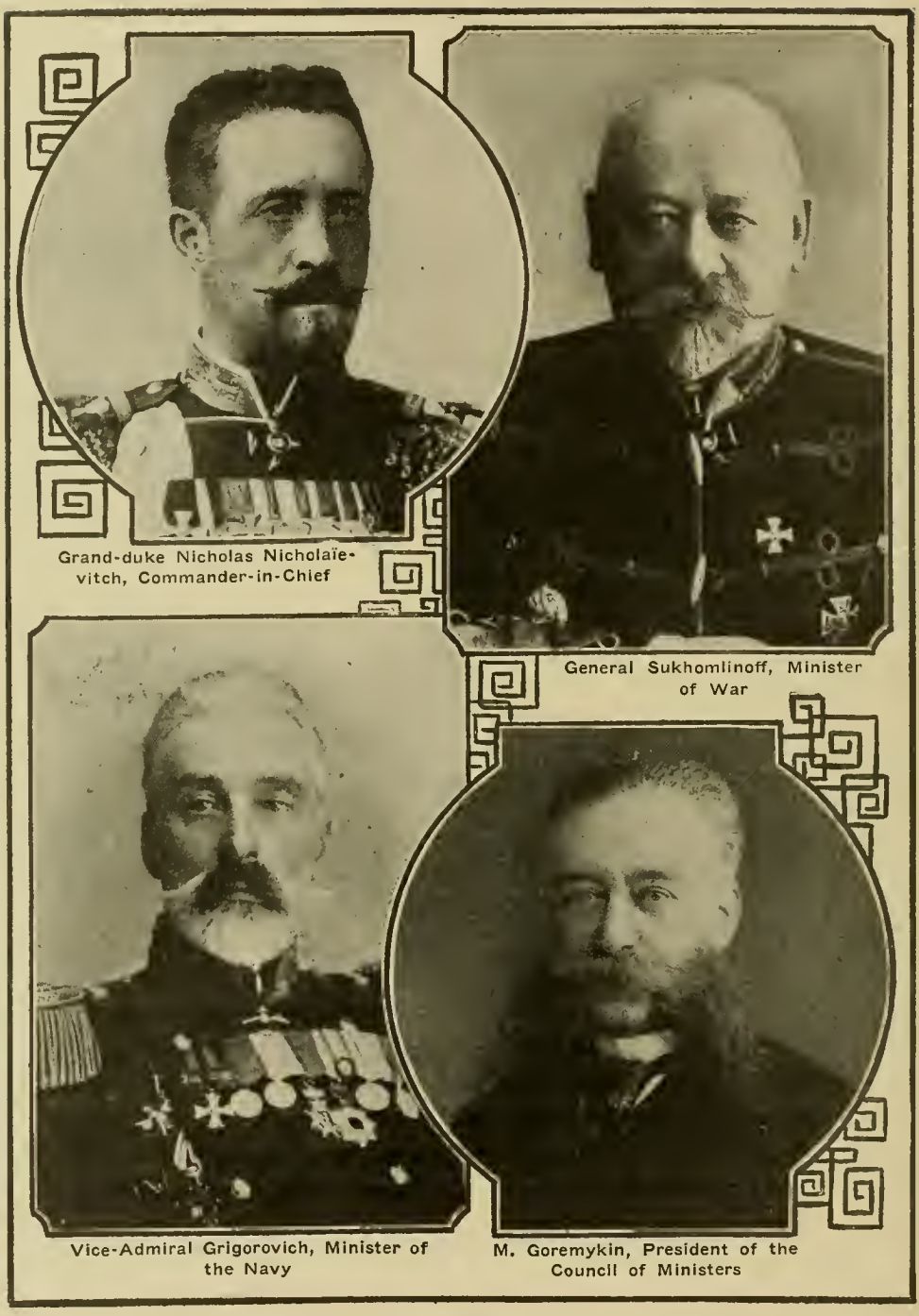
Russia.—To get a mental picture of the immensity of the Russian Empire look at a map that covers Asia and Europe. Thus regarded, the western kingdoms of Europe seem suddenly to have shrunk. France, Italy, the British Isles, the German Empire even—all these, it appears, would rest easily in the lap of Siberia alone.

Or, if you prefer to think in figures, Russia means one seventh of all the dry land on the globe. Its extreme length from west to east is 6,000 miles—one fourth of the earth's circumference. When a peas-



A Russian Regiment Passing in Review Before the Czar and His Staff

ant, taking at St. Petersburg a train of the Trans-Siberian Railway, arrives at Irkutsk, he has already traveled twelve hundred miles farther than if he had made the trip from New York to San Francisco; and he has paid in fare only the equivalent of fifteen dollars. From North to South Russia, where it is widest, measures 2,300 miles. It is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the east by the seas of the Pacific; on the south by China, Afghanistan, Persia, and Turkey in Asia; on the west by the Black Sea, Rumania, Austria, Germany, the Baltic, and the Scandinavian Peninsula. Its area, including the inland lakes, together with Khiva and Bokhara, is 8,770,703 square miles.



Grand-duke Nicholas Nicholaïevitch, Commander-in-Chief

General Sukhomlinoff, Minister of War

Vice-Admiral Grigorovich, Minister of the Navy

M. Goremykin, President of the Council of Ministers

DISTINGUISHED RUSSIAN OFFICIALS

Russian expansion has been neither colonial nor maritime, but purely continental. The empire has grown from within by a series of accretions in which one contiguous country after another has been annexed and absorbed. It has been a great land monster, whose appetite grows with what it feeds on. Yet, geographically, its aggressions have but followed the natural "lay of the land." In other words, it is a great, unbroken plain; for even the Ural Mountains, between European and Asiatic Russia, do not contribute a continuous or a formidable barrier. In European Russia, the only breaks are the small tablelands. Excepting the Urals and an isolated chain in the Crimea, the mountains are of no importance. In the southern region stretch the barren steppes; vast forests and many lakes are in the north; in the heart of the country, and extending to the west, are the great wheat lands. Of the rivers, the Neva and the Vistula flow into the Baltic; the Dniester, the Dnieper, and the Don into the Black Sea; and the Ural and the Volga into the Caspian.

Russia has a polar region, a cold region, a temperate region, and a warm region; so particulars of its climate cannot well be set forth in brief. At St. Petersburg (now called Petrograd) the mean annual temperature is above 40°. In "cold" Russia, the thermometer sinks to 30° below zero and rises to 80° above. Midsummer heat in the warm region means a normal temperature of 100°, yet the Sea of Azov freezes early in November, and does not thaw till April. On the whole, it is a healthful country, though it suffers from drouths in the south and an excess of snow and rain in the far north. Nearly all the waters maintain fisheries. Russian sables are among the most luxurious furs known to civilization. Bears, wolves, wild hogs, elk, bison, and lynx abound.

Russia, until lately, got all its living from the land. It is a great agricultural country, producing cotton and rice in northern latitudes commonly unfavorable to such culture. The profitable farming lands lie mostly between the Baltic and the Black Sea. In 1912 the whole area under cultivation was 361,000,000 acres. Of this, about 78,000,000 acres were sown in wheat, yielding about 21,500,000 tons; 72,000,000 acres in rye, yielding nearly 26,000,000 tons; together with barley, oats, hemp, maize, flax, tobacco, and 37,000,000 tons of potatoes. Herds and flocks embrace nearly 49,000,000 head of cattle, 74,000,000

sheep and goats, 13,500,000 pigs, and more than 33,000,000 horses. Russia ranks third among the sea-food producing countries of the globe. It exports caviar, and imports codfish and herrings to feed a population that cannot live on a year's catch of fish approximating 1,500,000,000 pounds.

In the mountains are precious metals, copper, platinum, high-grade

Some of Russia's World-famous Cossacks

iron, marble, rock salt, and lead. Russia leads the world in the production of petroleum, the annual output approximating 515,500,000 poods—a pood being 36 pounds. From immeasurable coal-beds, near the Dnieper and elsewhere, was taken, in 1910, coal weighing 1,600,000 poods. In the same year was produced 3,606 poods of pure gold. In 1906 the output of steel and rails reached 2,000,000 tons.

Russia's total imports in 1912 were valued at more than $600,000,000; the exports at more than $800,000,000. Her commercial marine in 1913 included 716 steamers (790,000 tons) and 500 sailing-vessels (184,000 tons).

The railways aggregated about 50,000 miles in length—a large portion being under government control. In 1912 they carried more than 235,000,000 passengers, and more than 229,000,000 tons of freight—yielding a gross revenue of about $600,000,000. The building of the Trans-Siberian Railway has cut in half the time required to reach the Pacific via the Suez Canal, and has spread the Russian influence along the borders of China.

The whole empire's population in 1912 was estimated at 173,360,000. These figures included 122,550,000 in European Russia proper, exclusive of Poland and Finland. Siberia's population was 9,600,000, and that of Central Asia nearly 11,000,000. The Russian language is everywhere dominant, and the Russ represents two thirds of the whole population. The Poles represent about 6 per cent.; the Jews about 4 per cent.; Finns, 4.5 per cent.; Lithuanians, 2.4 per cent.; Tureo-Tartars, 10.6 per cent. It is estimated that about 80 per cent. of the inhabitants dwell on about 25 per cent. of the surface. Despite famine, wars, poverty, and cruel oppression, Russia grows and grows. The natural annual increase is placed at more than 1,700,000. The average proportion of the sexes is 99.8 women to 100 men; but in Finland and the Russian provinces the women outnumber the men by more than two per cent.

Russia's capital, St. Petersburg (now Petrograd), has a population of a little more than 2,000,000. The city is built on the marshland of the Neva River, 20 miles east of its port, Cronstadt. The average winter temperature is 18°. It was founded by Peter the Great in 1703, and Catherine II made it one of the most brilliant capitals in Europe. When the emperor occupies his wonderful Winter Palace, it houses 6,000 persons. This building is one of the world's largest palaces, and is lavishly decorated and furnished. Moscow's population is 1,174,000. Nijni Novgorod, on the Trans-Siberian Railway, has a population of only 90,000, but its annual fair is the largest in the world.

Russia nominally ceased to be an absolute monarchy in 1905, with the establishment of the Duma; but the emperor has not dropped his title of Autocrat, although the Duma has registered a protest, and in him are still lodged, in a great measure, the executive, judicial, and legislative functions of the government. The fourth Duma has been

Russian Infantry

sitting since November, 1912. By a change made in the electoral law in June, 1907, the members of the Duma, representing the provinces and the greater cities, are chosen (for five years) by electoral bodies created by the voters. The council of the empire, established in 1810, became in 1906 a legislative council, made up equally of elected members and the emperor's nominees, and annually convoked and prorogued by imperial decree (ukase). No act of legislation is submitted for the emperor's approval unless it has been passed by both bodies. Equal powers of initiative and legislation are vested in the Council and the Duma, but neither body is empowered to receive petitions or deputations.

Four additional councils, controlled by the emperor's private cabinet, conduct the administration. All the legal tribunals are controlled by the high court of justice, known as the Ruling Senate. This was established by Peter I in 1711. There are six sections, representing the various provinces, presided over collectively by the minister of justice. The Holy Synod—also established by Peter I—superintends the empire's religious affairs. It is composed of the metropolitans of St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Kiev, the archbishops of Georgia and Poland, and several bishops sitting in turn. Its decisions are of no effect unless approved by the emperor. A third government board, reorganized in the autumn of 1905, is the committee of ministers, while the Council of Ministers constitutes a fourth board composed of all the ministers and the general directors of important administrations.

The established religion is the Russo-Greek Church, officially called the Greek "Orthodox faith," of which the emperor is the head. He

Passing in Review

does not presume to decide questions of theology or dogma, but he makes appointments and exercises certain powers of transfer and dismissal. Members of the Orthodox faith represent about 70 per cent. of all; Mussulmans, 10 per cent.; Roman Catholics, 9 per cent.; Protestants, 5 per cent.; Jews, 4 per cent.

Advanced education has been sternly repressed in Russia, even in the time of the present emperor. Professors have been persecuted and suspended for teaching fundamental scientific laws, standard text-books have been banned, and other repressive measures have been put in force. Statistically speaking, European Russia in 1913 had 90,418 elementary schools—high, middle, and primary—with a total attendance of 5,794,922. Ten per cent. of the total population have received no instruction whatever, and it is said that many schools in the remote districts exist only on paper. The primary instruction in these districts is very backward. University students in St. Petersburg number 8,224; in Moscow, 9,242; in Kiev, 4,931. On January 1, 1912, the whole number in the empire was 36,147. There are also secondary institutions, in number somewhat insignificant compared with the area and population. The special schools embrace: theological, 470, with more than 77,000 pupils; pedagogical, 323, with more than 21,000 pupils; medical, 72, with 9,112 pupils; technical, 627, with 40,000 pupils; commercial and industrial, 178, with about 38,000 pupils; fine arts, 75, with 10,500 pupils.

Russia's national debt has not varied much since 1902; in 1913 it was 8,845,717,768 roubles.

The Russian Empire had its real beginning in the year 862, when the northern Slavs, tired of their civil wars, invited Rurik, the Norse-

man, to govern them. So Rurik came to Novgorod; but some of his Varangian brethren pushed on south to the Dnieper and set up their government at Kiev. Then Rurik's successors took possession of Kiev also, embracing Christianity in the reign of the Queen Regent Olga (950). Olga's son, Sviatoslaff, divided the empire among his three sons, and the dissensions that arose continued until the reign of Vladimir (980-1015), who married a sister of the Byzantine emperors. Under his rule the Russian people became Greek Christians, passing under the influence of the Byzantine civilization; and by this time the Norsemen—as often happens with conquerors or invaders—had lost their identity as Scandinavians and taken on the character of their subjects, the Slavs. The new empire now stretched eastward to the Volga, and embraced the country from the northern lakes to the Dnieper; but again it was divided among too many heirs, and again came quarrels that disrupted the kingdom. It became a group of principalities, and some of these States made good progress under their princes—notably Novgorod, which acquired wealth and even a liberal form of government. Nevertheless, the empire had lost its strength and solidity, and it was as a leaf in the storm of the Mongol invasion.

This set in early in the thirteenth century, when the Tartars (Mongols, or Moguls), under the terrible Genghiz Khan, came like an ant-swarm from Asia, sweeping through the greater part of both Asia and Europe, and threatening to submerge Mahometan and Christian alike. For two centuries Russia was trodden under the heel of the Tartars, and was quite cut off from contact with western Europe. Kiev was altogether destroyed, and the principality of Vladimir in the north became tributary. In the last quarter of the thirteenth century came a shifting of the seat of power from Novgorod to Moscow. In 1328 it became the capital. Ivan I, strongest of the subject princes, reigned there, and, gaining favor with the Mongol khans, was permitted to retain the succession in his own line. It was Ivan who built The Kremlin—most famous of Russia's citadels, including within its walls the imperial palace, the arsenal, churches, and monasteries.

The Mongols made a mistake in giving so much power to Ivan. From his loins sprang a line of kings, and among the first of these was Dmitri, who organized a valiant but vain rebellion. Better for-

tune attended the efforts of Ivan III the Great (1462-1505), who subdued Novgorod and overthrew the Khan of the Golden Horde (1480). His conquest quadrupled the Russian domain; but it remained for his grandson, Ivan IV, to complete the subjection of the Moguls. This ruler—Ivan the Terrible, as he has come to be called—carried the war to the Caucasus, and overcame the Khan of Kazan.

The Czar and President Poincaré at Peterhof

Thus the only lasting dynasty established by the Moguls in their attempted conquest of all Europe came to an end.

Russia now began anew. On the south, Ivan, who called himself czar, waged war against the Tartars of the Crimea. On the Baltic he sought to obtain a seaport for Russia, but Poland and Sweden blocked his way. When Novgorod joined hands with Poland in resisting him, he stormed the city and massacred its people. Everywhere he overcame opposition with cruelty; yet he could not prevail against the Swedes and their allies, and he was obliged to give up Livonia. Ivan established commercial intercourse with England, by way of the

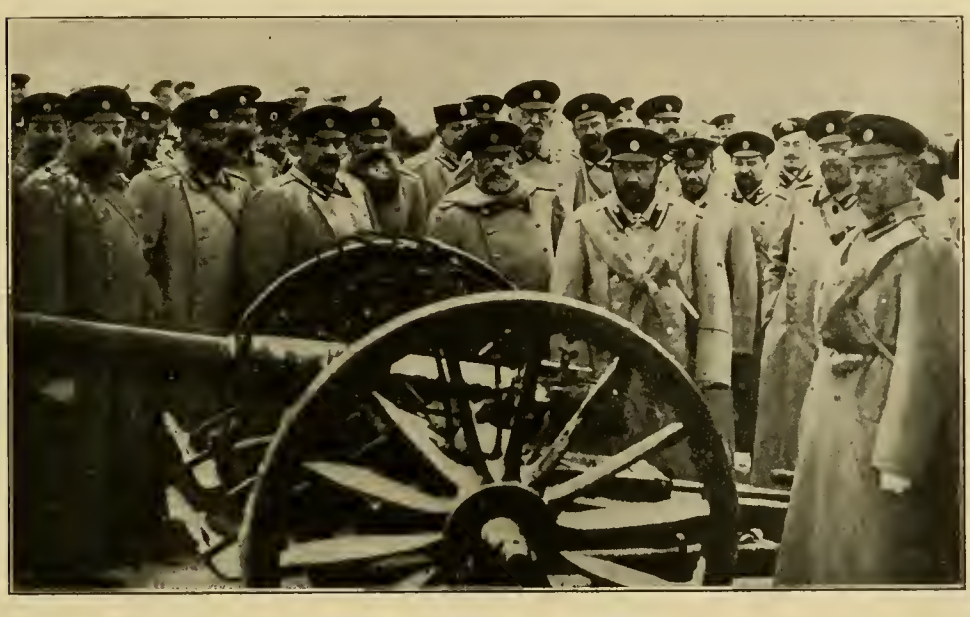
White Sea, introduced the printing-press, encouraged the coming of western artists and mechanics, and sought the friendship of Queen Elizabeth. For England was now in the spacious Elizabethan age, while Russia was just awakening from the long nightmare of Turanian rule.

In Ivan's reign we first hear of the Cossacks. These robber bands of the Dnieper and the Don were pressed into service by Ivan, and readily made war for Russia against the weaker nomads of the surrounding regions. Ivan sent one of the Cossack chiefs, with a handful of followers, across the Ural Mountains, and in doing so began the conquest of Siberia. Russia had now entered upon her march to the Pacific. The Tartars still opposed her progress to the Euxine, and her only ports were on the White Sea and the Caspian. From the port of Archangel, her outpost on the frozen Arctic, she began to ply a trade with the nations to the west. This port was founded by Feodor, son of Ivan, and it remained Russia's chief haven till the coming of Peter the Great.

The royal line that began with Rurik, the Norseman, came to an end in 1589. The Poles brought forward a pretender to the throne, and a condition approaching anarchy ensued. Then, in 1613, a representative assembly of Russians elected the youthful Michael Romanoff (1613-'45) to rule over them; and from him springs the present royal family.

With the coming of Peter the Great (1682-1725), Russian civilization made its first distinct progress. In 1696 he took Azoff from the Turks, and Russia acquired her coveted port on the Black Sea. He made war against Charles XII, and acquired Sweden's possessions east of the Baltic. On the Caspian Sea he extended his dominions at the expense of Persia. St. Petersburg was made the capital, in place of Moscow. Peter was determined to make Russia a great Power, and he assumed the title of Emperor of All the Russias, which meant that Poland should not retain her hold upon her Russian provinces. Peter was half barbarian, half modern. He performed manual labor in the navy yards. He was a traveler and a linguist, and, like Ivan, he opened the door to foreign arts and inventions. Russia was an inferior country when Peter became its ruler, and when his reign was over it had become a Power.

Peter's policy was continued by Catherine, his widow, who reigned for only two years. From 1725 until 1796 Russia's rulers were chiefly women: Anna, Elizabeth, and Catherine II. In the reign of Catherine II (1762-'96), the Crimea was conquered, the Tartars were driven out, and Russia once more had access to the Black Sea. A more momentous event of her reign was the spoliation of Poland, whereby Russia acquired 180,000 square miles of territory, with 6,000,000 inhabitants. This brought her into close contact with western



A Group of Russian Artillery Officers

Europe, and made her a force in European affairs. In Catherine's reign, also, the Turks were forced back to the Dniester, and Russia began her policy of interference in Turkey's internal affairs.

The brief reign of the autocratic Paul I (1796-1801), ending with his assassination, was succeeded by that of Alexander I (1801-'25). Russia's remarkable rise in the nineteenth century now began in earnest, and its events are closely linked with those of our own time. Alexander was first at peace and then at war with Napoleon. When Austria and Prussia had been conquered, he joined issues with Napoleon once more, and received some territory in Lithuania, at Prussia's expense. Russia also deprived Sweden of Finland, pushed her

way to the Danube against the Turks, and annexed certain Persian territory between the Black and Caspian seas. After Napoleon's fatal invasion of Russia, in 1812, Alexander took the leading part in his overthrow; with Metternich, in 1815, he was largely instrumental in remaking the map of Europe and creating the Kingdom of Poland under the Russian scepter. It was he who inspired the Holy Alliance.

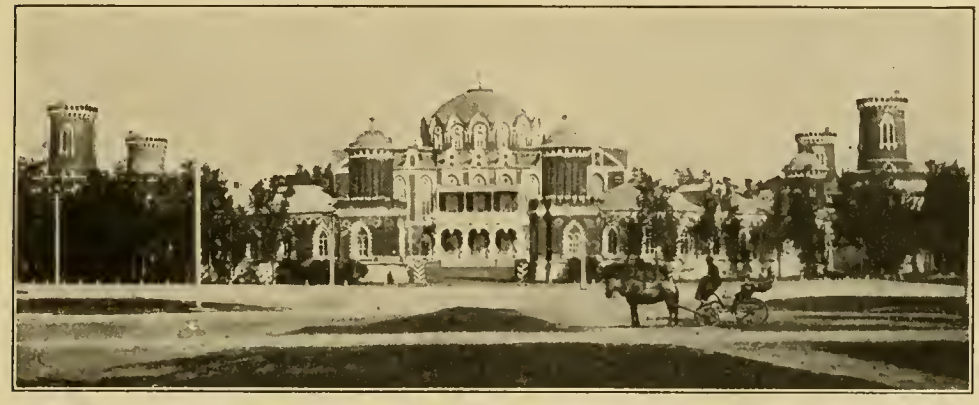
Meanwhile Russia's internal affairs did not prosper. In the beginning of his reign the emperor displayed liberal ideas. Under the inspiration of the tutor of his youth, La Herpe, new universities were established, scholarship was encouraged, and numerous important reforms were planned. But later Alexander fell under the influence of Metternich's reactionary views, and came to believe that political freedom and the education of the masses were opposed to the laws of God. Russia immediately reverted to conditions approaching those of the Middle Ages. Science was suppressed, dissection of the dead was banned, and German universities were forbidden to Russian students.

Nicholas I (1825-'55) likewise did his best to crush liberalism. He was in all respects despotic. Under his rule, Poland was humbled in the dust and became virtually a Russian province. A strict censorship of books was put into effect, and the secret department of police became odious to all citizens that entertained the most innocent ideas of liberty. Russia's official corruption and incompetence were exposed in the Crimean war; but Nicholas did not live to profit by his mistakes.

Alexander II (1855-'81), touched by the deplorable condition of the Serfs, and perceiving, too, that repressive measures might lead to further uprisings, resolved to set them free. This was done in 1861, when 40,000,000 peasants were, in a manner, released from bondage; yet, under the terms of the new freedom, they were to some extent subjected to tyranny and expensive taxation at the hands of the State.

In 1863 there was another revolt in Poland, which was suppressed with cruel completeness, and Alexander declined to grant his subjects any greater liberties. His persistence in a course of despotism led to the movement known as nihilism, in which every educated and peacefully inclined person took part, and this in turn led to terrorism

and the employment of explosives in "removing" obnoxious officials. Early in 1878 a young woman, Vera Zassulitch, tried to kill General Trepoff, St. Petersburg's cruel and corrupt chief of police, and, following her acquittal by a jury packed by the government, yet in sympathy with her wrongs, sixteen persons were hanged and many others were sent to Siberia. This led to such acts of violence by the students, together with an attempt to kill the emperor, that Alexander was prevailed upon to grant the people at least some approach to a popular assembly. He consented to the compromise, but was assassinated while driving to his palace, early in 1881.



House of the Senate and Holy Synod, Petrograd

Alexander III (1881-'94) did not swerve from the example of his predecessors in crushing all experiments toward liberty. In this course he was strengthened by Pobiedonosteff, Procurator of the Holy Synod, yet a new era had set in—the era of industrial enterprise, encouraged by Count Witte; and this began to affect the social order in Russia by drawing the peasants from the farms to the cities. Many of them then heard, for the first time, of republican institutions, and came to know that there was a Germany and a France, and other strange States, to the west of Russia. Hearing these things, they too began to talk of liberty. This so alarmed the advisers of the emperor that afterward the factory hands were sent back to the farms, and were replaced by farmers; but this only had the effect of spreading the news, and so nothing was gained by it.

Meanwhile Russia continued to expand. Turkestan was taken into

the fold, and so were Samarkand, Bokhara, and Khiva, until only Afghanistan remains as a buffer between Russia and Great Britain's Empire of India. Even in Persia the Russian influence is predominant.

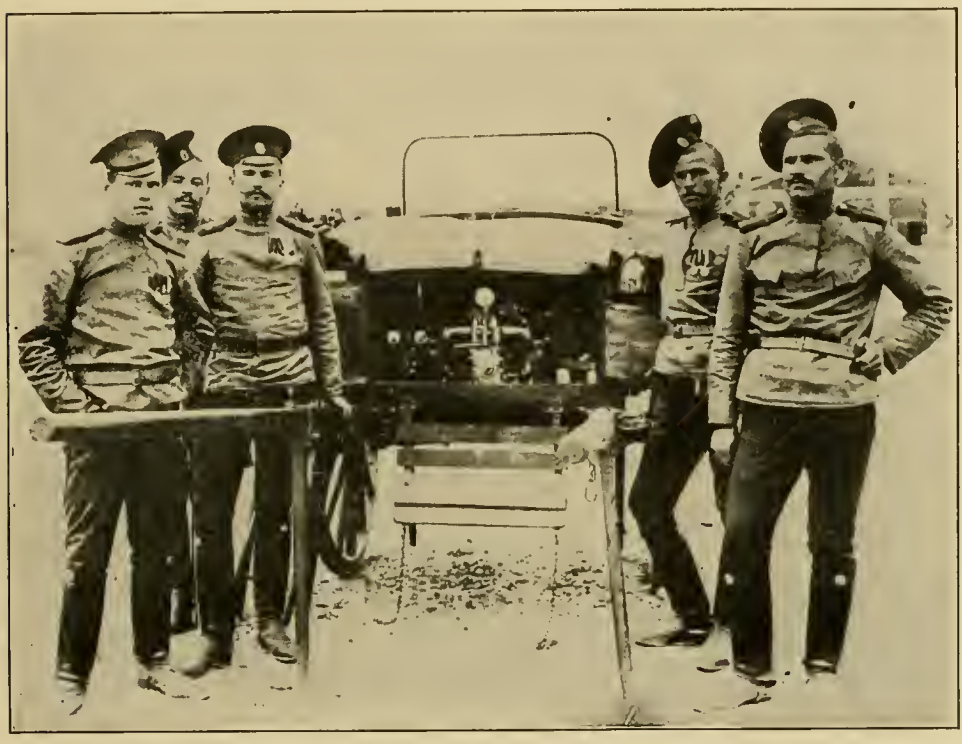
Nicholas II, the present emperor, ascended the throne in 1894. The events of his reign are familiar to readers of our own day who will recall that Nicholas has pursued a wavering policy, even in the case of Finland, whose independence he stifled, only to restore her

Russian Infantrymen, Veterans of the War with Japan

rights when Russia felt the strain that came with the war with Japan in 1904. By this conflict, arising from Russia's occupation of Manchuria and Port Arthur, the corruption and incompetence of official Russia was once more revealed. Japan destroyed the Russian navy, and captured the supposedly impregnable Port Arthur after one of the bloodiest sieges in history. Mukden fell in March, 1905, and in September a treaty was signed, under the terms of which Manchuria was evacuated by both nations.

Meanwhile, in 1903, there was a terrible war-scare of Jews at Kishineff, and von Plehve, Minister of the Interior, began the exercise of that ruthless policy which led to his assassination in July, 1904.

This period marks the rise of the Liberals, the Social Democrats, and the Socialist revolutionary party. During 1904 and 1905 Russia was in the throes of incipient revolution. Reforms had been promised; but on "Red Sunday" (January 22, 1905) an army of humble, unarmed petitioners—including men, women and children—on the way to the Winter Palace were shot down by the imperial troops. It ap-



Russian Soldiers with Field Wireless Apparatus

peared, for a time, as if all Russia might revolt; but torture, imprisonment, and exile to Siberia carried the day. The Grand Duke Sergius, uncle of the emperor, was, however, "removed" by means of a bomb.

In August, 1905, the emperor was prevailed upon to summon a Duma—a representative body or council whose powers should be limited to advice—and general strikes followed the announcement of this perfunctory arrangement. At Moscow revolutionists fought the troops and more Jews were murdered. The Duma eventually met in

May, 1906; but the addresses made by its members did not please the emperor, who dissolved it and appointed a date for another meeting. Various disorders followed, several thousand persons were killed or maimed in the name of good government, and, incidentally, the Jews suffered again. In 1907 the second Duma met, and this, too, was dissolved, after it refused to expel some of its members and surrender others to the police. The third Duma, which met in 1907, dared to declare that the title "autocrat" is "incompatible with the

Russian Supply Detachment, with Motor Transports

system put into effect by the emperor's manifesto of October 29, 1905."

On July 29, 1914, following the declaration of war by Austria on Servia, Russia began mobilizing her army to go to the aid of Servia, whereupon the German emperor, after demanding that mobilization of the Russian armies be discontinued, declared war on Russia, August 1, 1914. On August 6 Russia declared war against Austria. A promise to reunite Poland and give it autonomy secured the loyalty of the Poles in the war, and all opposition to the Government was put aside, to present a united front to the enemy. On August 17 the first Russian troops invaded German territory in Eydtkuhnen, Prussia, which action was soon followed by the Russian occupation of Insterharg, on the way to the fortress of Koenigsberg.

BALKAN PENINSULA
English Miles
Longitude East 20 from Greenwich
HUNGARY
RUSSIA
MOLDAVIA
TRANSYLVANIA
BUDAPEST
Grosswardein
Klausenburg
Szegedin
Temesvar
Hermanstadt
Kronstadt
Jassy
Kishenev
Galatz
Kilia
Leti I.
SLAVONIA
BANAT
ROUMANIA
WALACHIA
BUKHAREST
Tchernavoda
Kustendji
Constantia
Silistria
Rustchuk
Shumla
Varna
Burghas
Agathopoli
BOSNIA
SERVIA
BELGRADE
Krajova
Tirnova
BULGARIA
BLACK SEA
HERZEGOVINA
Mostar
MONTENEGRO
Scutari
Novibazar
Nish
SOFIA
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Kirk Kilisia
Mustafa
Demotika
Pera
CONSTANTINOPLE (ISTAMBOUL)
SEA OF MARMORA
Gallipoli
Broussa
Troja
Lemnos
Mitylene
Smyrna
Aidin
Samos
Rhodes
Cerigo
CRETE OR CANDIA
Candia
Milo
Paros
Naxos
Andros
Tenos
Syra
Mykonos
Cyclades
Archipelago
Southern Sporades
Eubœa
Negropont
Chios
Salonica
Larissa
THESSALY
Lamia
Corinth
ATHENS
Patras
Zakynthos
Cephalonia
Corfu
Janina
Prevesa
Arta
Lepanto
Scutari
Durazzo
Bari
Brindisi
Taranto
Gulf of Taranto
Strait of Otranto
ADRIATIC SEA
IONIAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ITALY
Cotrone
Sarajevo
Mostar
Ragusa
Cattaro
Antivari
Dulcigno
Prizrend
Ochrida
Monastir
Kavala
Thasos
Samothraki
Imbros
Dardanelles
Gulf of Salonika
Mt. Olympus
Mt. Kissovo (Ossa)
Mt. Plessidi (Pelion)
Mt. Athos
Pera
Scutari
Kustendji
Constantia
Silistria
Rustchuk
Shumla
Varna
Burghas
Agathopoli
Adrianople
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Mustafa
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Pera
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CRETE OR CANDIA
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Archipelago
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THESSALY
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Zakynthos
Cephalonia
Corfu
Janina
Prevesa
Arta
Lepanto
Scutari
Durazzo
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Gulf of Taranto
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ADRIATIC SEA
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Monastir
Kavala
Thasos
Samothraki
Imbros
Dardanelles
Gulf of Salonika
Mt. Olympus
Mt. Kissovo (Ossa)
Mt. Plessidi (Pelion)
Mt. Athos
John Bartholomew & Co

PETER (PETAR) I

King of Servia. Born in Belgrade, July 12, 1844. Son of Prince Alexander I, Kara-Georgevitch. Fought with Distinction in the French Army, in the Franco-Prussian War. Proclaimed King June 15, 1903, After the Assassination of King Alexander, of the Rival Dynasty of Obrenovitch. Married Zorka, Princess of Montenegro, Sister of the Queen of Italy, August 11, 1883

Servia.—Servia, south of Hungary, is divided from her Austro-Magyar enemies by the Danube and the Save. On the east lies Bulgaria; on the south, Greece; on the west, Albania and Montenegro. Servia is thus an inland State, her march to the sea by way of Albania having been checked by the Powers, who are not friendly to Slav adventures in the Adriatic.

By the war of 1912 Servia's area was doubled. Her expansion to the south embraces the whole of Macedonia under her occupation, and some territory east of the old vilayet of Kossovo. Her area now approximates 34,000 square miles, and her population is about 5,000,000. The wars with Turkey and Bulgaria cost her, in money alone, more than $90,000,000.

Servia is a tableland, cut up by mountains and valleys. The highlands in the east link the Transylvania Alps with the Balkans. From the southeast to the middle of the northern boundary line runs the broad and fertile valley of the Morava River, and near the center of the country the southern and western forks of this river come together. Still another river, the Drina, a tributary of the Save, forms much of the western boundary. Well-watered and fertile, with perhaps 70 per cent. of its area productive, it is a country of small farms, few of them exceeding thirty acres. More than 4,500,000 acres are under cultivation, mostly in cereals. Plums and prunes are exported in large quantities. The timber of the forests supplies stores for casks exported to Austria and France. In 1911 the country contained more than 150,000 horses and nearly 1,000,000 head of cattle. Silk culture employed more than 30,000 persons. Servian industries are progressing. These include flour-milling, brewing and distilling, and the ancient industry of carpet-weaving—a specialty of the southeastern section, where the secrets of colors and dyeing are handed down from father to son. The mines of copper, coal and lead are largely under government control.

In 1910, the capital, Belgrade, on the Danube, had a population of 90,000. Next to this in size are Monastir and Usküb, newly acquired from the Turks, with populations approximating 60,000 and 47,000 respectively. Belgrade has a university; the State supports public schools, and makes elementary education compulsory. Yet in 1900 only 17 per cent. of the total population could read and write.

Belgrade, the Capital of Servia, Austrian Territory in the Distance

It is interesting to note that, unlike the advanced States of Europe, Servia is without paupers. Even in its capital, Belgrade, the very poor are so few that a workhouse is unnecessary. Thus every Servian who goes forth to fight for his country does not battle for an abstract cause or idea, but fights to protect land of which he is the actual owner. This perhaps helps to explain that prowess in war which has so recently elicited the admiration of the world. Yet war is the great burden under which the Servian labors. Previous to the struggle for independence in 1876, there was no public debt. In 1903, owing largely to the liabilities imposed by the Powers under the Treaty of Berlin, the public debt had become $81,500,000; on January 1, 1913, it was more than $131,000,000.

In order to pay the interest, the Government, acting through a licensed company organized for the purpose, controls the revenue from the manufacture of tobacco, salt, petroleum, matches, cigarette-paper, and alcohol.

Every man between 18 and 50 years of age is liable for military

service. The war strength is about 175,000, with 95,000 additional soldiers in reserve.

The country was conquered by the Turks at the battle of Kossovo (the "Field of Blackbirds") in 1389. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, a great number of Servians left their native land and settled in Hungary, where their descendants live to-day. In the opening years of the nineteenth century, Kara (Black) George led a revolt against Turkish rule, but he was assassinated in 1817 by Obrenovich.

Servian Women-soldiers, Members of the "League of Death"

The princes of this house ruled Servia until 1842, when Alexander, son of Black George, was chosen prince by the National Assembly. In 1859 he was forced to abdicate, and was succeeded first by the aged Milosh, and then by Michael of the same house, who, in turn, was murdered in 1868. Michael's cousin, Milan, then mounted the throne, and in 1878 Servia achieved its independence of Turkey, and he was proclaimed king. Upon his abdication in 1899, he was succeeded by his son, Alexander. Four years later King Alexander and Queen Draga were murdered by army officers representing the old Kara George dynasty; and thus, after a century of feuds, Peter I, the reigning king, is the third of his house to rule over Servia.

Nicholas I, King of Montenegro

Montenegro.—Montenegro is 8 miles in width and 100 miles in length, from north to south. Since the war of 1912-'13, it has possessed a seaboard about 28 miles in length; otherwise, it is shut off from the Adriatic on the west by the tip of Austrian Dalmatia. Bosnia bounds it on the northwest, Servia on the east, Albania on the south. Under the new dispensation, it takes in a little slice of Turkey, and it has an area of 5,800 square miles (a little larger than Connecticut), with a population of 500,000. It is rugged and mountainous, and its people are mostly farmers belonging to the Servian branch of the Slavs, and, in the main, to the Greek Church. Crime is rare.

There is free, compulsory education; at Cettinje, the capital (population, 5,000), there are a boys' college and a girls' high school. Danilo Petrovic, prince-bishop, overturned Turkish rule in 1697, and obtained Russian support. Montenegro was a principality up to 1910, and was then proclaimed a kingdom. A constitution, with popular representation, was granted in 1905 by the present ruler, King Nicholas I, a collateral descendant of Petrovich.

A Montenegrin may be called upon to bear arms at any time from his eighteenth to his sixty-second year. Montenegro has no cavalry. Its war strength does not exceed 40,000 men, but King Nicholas made a brave showing in the recent conflict with the Turks. On August 8 Montenegro declared war on Austria.

Albania.—The chief use of Albania is its employment by the Powers in preventing Servia from reaching the sea. It lies south of Montenegro, with the Strait of Otranto on the west, and Greece and Servia on the east. Its estimated area is 12,000 square miles, and its population, of Czechs in the north and Tosks in the south, is estimated at 2,000,000. It is a neglected and undeveloped country, with much of the arable land untilled. Its interior is rugged, and its coast land is swampy and unhealthful. Bandits and warring tribes keep the country free of tourists; besides, there are no railways and the few bridges are unsafe. The best known towns are Scutari and Durazzo. The chief river is the Drin. It was called Illyria in ancient times. In the second century B. C., it was a Roman province. Slav tribes settled it in the Middle Ages, and the Turks subdued it in 1478. Early in the eighteenth century it became virtually independent under Ali Pasha—one of Lord Byron's heroes. The Powers have made an independent State of Albania, vesting the government in the hands of a prince supported and advised by an international commission of control. Prince William Frederick Henry of Wied, a nephew of Rumania's Queen Elizabeth, whose name in literature is "Carmen Sylva," has accepted the crown. The future of the country is problematical.

ITALY
English Miles
0 10 20 40 60 80 100
SWITZERLAND
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
FRANCE
LIGURIAN SEA
TYRRHENIAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA
SARDINIA
CORSICA
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Genoa
Gulf of Taranto
GULF OF TARANTO
Strait of Bonifacio
Lipari Islands
Ponzae Is.
Pantellaria I.
Malta
Continuation Eastward
Bartholoomew Edinr

The Kings of Italy and Servia

Italy.—From the beginning of the earliest historical records, Italy has been an "earthly paradise," for no country combining such beautiful scenery, delightful climate, fertile land, and picturesque waters is found elsewhere. Italy to-day may be regarded as divided into three sections: the northern, including Piedmont, Venetia, Liguria, and Lombardy, and bounded by Austria-Hungary and Switzerland; the central part, embracing the ancient Etruscan, Latium, and Umbrian divisions; and the southern, which includes the Samnite, Apulian, and Calabrian districts, with Sardinia and Sicily, the islands in the Bay of Naples, the Lipari group, and the Trentini Islands in the Adriatic Sea. On the east it is bounded by the eastern Alps, separating it from the Austrian provinces of Carinthia and Carniola and the Adriatic; on the south by the Ionian Sea; on the west by the Tyrrhene and Ligurian Seas and the western Alps, which, together with the river Var, separate it from France. From north to south, the length of the country is about 718 miles; its breadth varies from 90 to 350 miles. The total area of Italy proper is 110,659 square miles. The coast-line, which is washed by five seas, is 2,272 miles long, and that of the islands

HIS HOLINESS POPE BENEDICT XV

The New Pope Owes His Election Indirectly to the War, Which Bore so Heavily on His Predecessor, Pius X, That the Days of the Late Pontiff Were Shortened

1,944 miles. The population of Italy, with her islands, is 34,686,653.

Among the Alpine heights, 6,000 feet above the sea-level, rises the river Po, 360 miles long, the largest river in Italy, the tributaries of which drain an area of 27,000 square miles. From the western end of the Alps the Apennine Mountains begin, and thence they extend south like a backbone throughout the length of the peninsula.

Officers of Many Nations at Italian Maneuvers

Besides Italy proper and her surrounding islands, her provinces and dependencies include San Marino, the oldest and smallest independent republic in the world, situated far up on a steep ledge of the Apennines, and covering an area of only thirty-two square miles; Eritrea, in northwestern Africa, which exports pearls, mother-of-pearl, and hides; Somaliland, the Italian part of which occupies the central tip of Africa on the eastern coast between the equator and Lat. 12° N.; the Tientsin concession in China, which was leased by Italy in 1902, and covers an area of eighteen square miles; and Tripoli, in northern Africa, which was under Turkish government from

the sixteenth century until the year 1912, when Italy annexed the territory and declared war on Turkey, the result of which was the ratification by Turkey of the annexation, embodied in the Treaty of Ouchy in October, 1912.

Over these dominions reigns Victor Emmanuel III, great-grandson of Victor Emmanuel I, the first king of United Italy after her liberation in 1860. Victor Emmanuel III ascended the throne in

Italian Cavalry, Among the Best in Europe

July, 1900. The king possesses executive power but is represented by responsible ministers. Legislative power is exercised by the king and the parliament, the latter divided into two bodies—the Senate and the House of Deputies. The Senate is formed from princes of the royal blood and from life members appointed by the king. The king's cabinet of ministers is composed of eleven members.

Members of the House of Deputies are elected to office by male citizens over the age of twenty-one. Citizens more than thirty years old, who are not priests or who do not hold any other public office, are eligible as members of the House of Deputies. Their term of office

lasts five years. Parliament meets every year, and the king has authority to dissolve it at any time.

The country is divided, for administrative purposes, into twelve provinces. These are subdivided into 197 territories, and these again are divided into communes, the number of which, according to the last report, is 8,320.

Education in Italy is compulsory up to the age of twelve, and

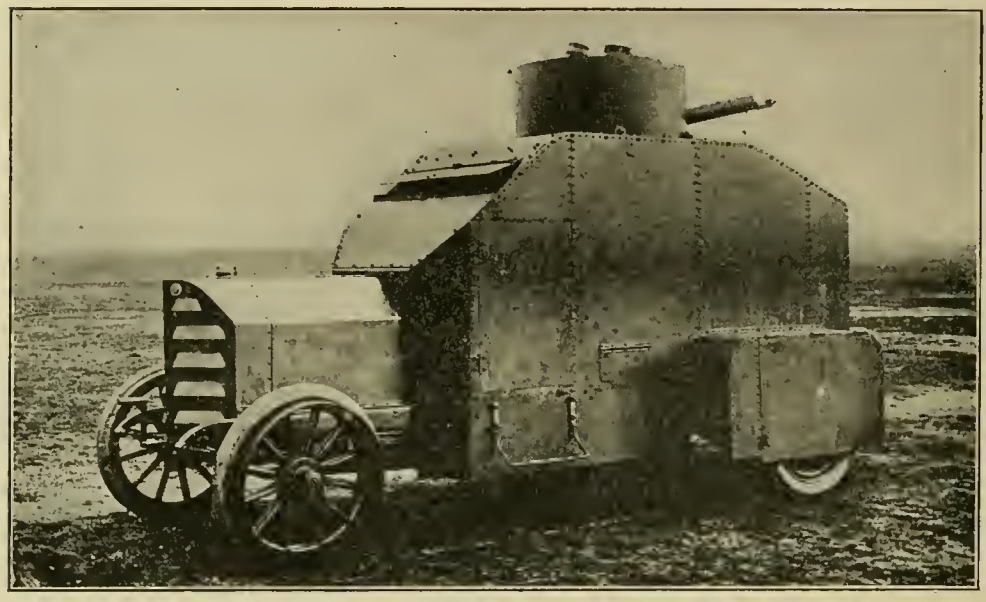
A Group of Italian Officers, One of the Famous Bersaglieri on the Left

every commune must have at least one elementary school for boys and one for girls. The schools are graded as elementary, secondary, and higher. There are numerous private schools, technical schools, and institutions for special branches of study.

The State religion is Roman Catholic, but all denominations are free to hold their private opinions and public religious services. The civil Government was once connected with the Catholic clergy, but has not been so since 1870. The seat of the Roman Catholic government is in Rome, where its affairs are directed from the Palace of the Vatican by the pope, assisted by archbishops and cardinals.

Service in the Italian army is compulsory. As soon as a young man reaches the age of nineteen, he is liable to be called on to enter the army at any time up to the age of thirty-nine. The period of service is two years in the ranks, eight years in the reserves, four years in the active militia, and seven years in the territorial militia. The total organized strength of the army is 400,000, the standing army numbering 291,679.

Italy possesses some of the largest ships in the world, including 8



Type of Armored Automobile Used in Italian Army

battleships, 10 armored cruisers, 13 gun-boats, 22 destroyers, 6 protected cruisers, 83 torpedo-boats, and 9 submarines, with a naval personnel of 1 admiral, 22 vice- and rear-admirals, 1,875 officers of various ranks, and 33,000 men.

The opening of the war placed Italy in a decidedly equivocal position. Ever since 1882 she has been a member of the Triple Alliance with Germany and Austria, and was expected by her two allies to join them in the struggle. Italy, however, cherishes an enmity of long standing against Austria, which at one time held and tyrannized over a large part of what is now Northern Italy. Italy joined Prussia in the war against Austria in 1866, and her forces were badly beaten at

Italian Field Telegraph Detachment

Custozza on land and at Lissa on the sea; but victorious Prussia forced Austria to give up her Italian province of Venetia. An extensive Austrian territory adjoining Venetia at the head of the Adriatic Sea is inhabited by Italian-speaking people, however, and Italy looks upon those provinces in much the same way as the French upon Alsace and Lorraine. Italy, moreover, is deeply indebted to France for her aid in the liberation of the country from Austria in 1859, when the armies of Napoleon III, in alliance with Sardinia, won the battles of Magenta and Solferino. Finally, Italy has a traditional friendship with England, who has given her many evidences of sincere sympathy.

On the outbreak of the war the Italian Government, instead of joining Austria and Germany, declared its neutrality, on the ground that the treaty of alliance bound Italy to throw her military resources into the scale only in case her allies were attacked by other powers, and she was under no obligation to join Germany and Austria in a war in which they were the aggressors. At the same time a partial mobilization of the army was ordered. Popular feeling in favor of the Allies gave rise to violent demonstrations; and the eagerness of nearly all classes to take advantage of the opportunity to wrest from Austria the long-coveted *"Italia irredenta"* was strongly manifested.

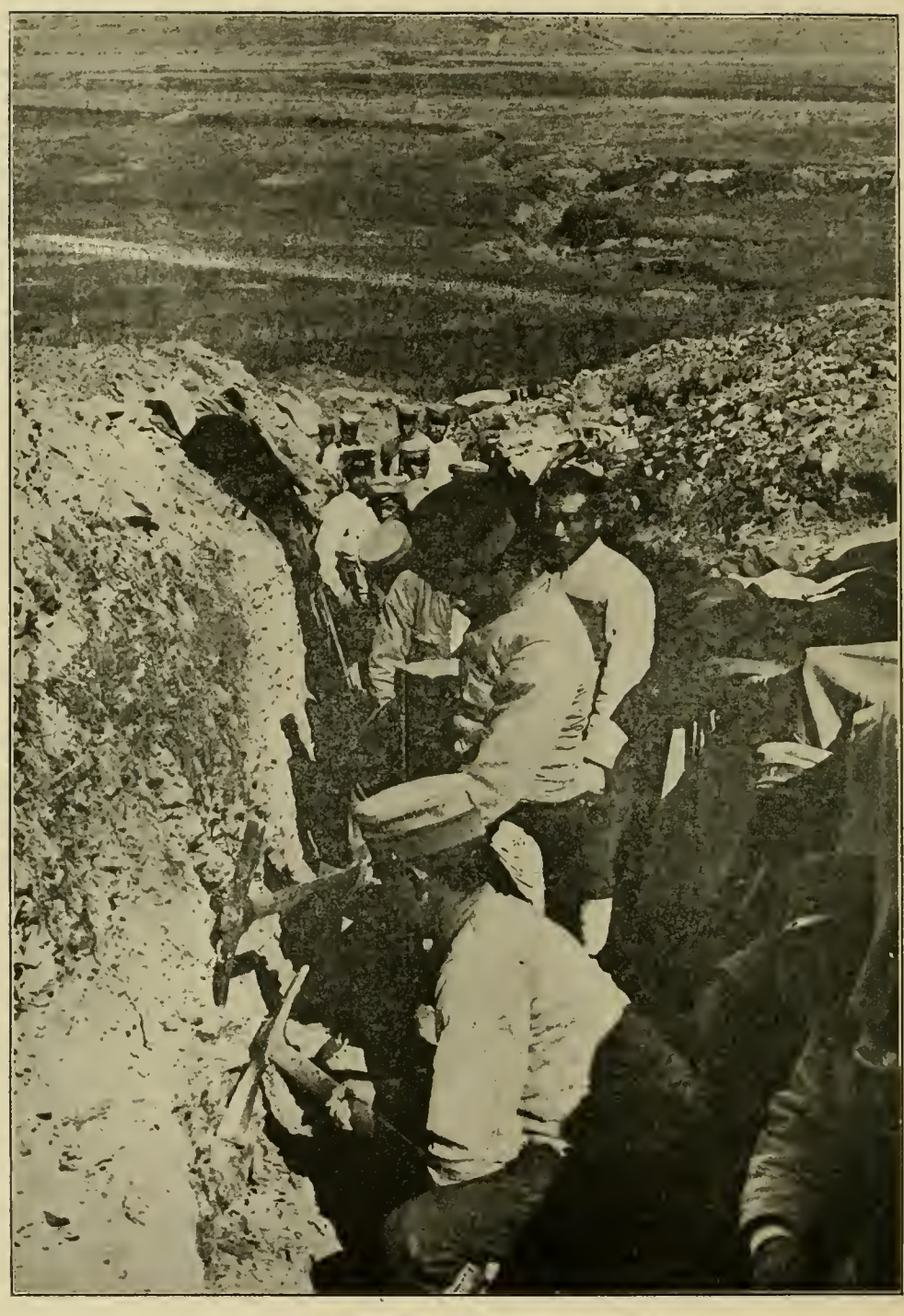
JAPAN
English Miles
0 100 200 300
MONGOLIA
MANCHURIA
SIBERIA
CHINA
SHINGKIN
KOREA
SEOUL
Korea Bay
Korea Arch
HWANG HAI OR YELLOW SEA
KOREA STRAIT
SEA OF JAPAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
Sakhalin
La Perouse Strait
Vlakke B.
Sangar Str.
Tsugar
Tokio (Yedo)
Osaka
Nagasaki
Kagoshima
Okinawa Sima or Gr. Loo Choo
RIU KIU OR LOO CHOO ISLANDS
STRAIT OF FORMOSA
FORMOSA OR TAIWAN
Tropic of Cancer
CONTINUATION SOUTHWARD ON SAME SCALE

Japan.—The old geographers used to say that Japan lay off the coast of China at the far eastern end of the world; but to Americans of to-day Japan lies to the far west. Its boundaries run along different lines to the Japanese themselves, for on the north they have Russian neighbors in half of Saghalien and in Siberia; on the south, North Americans and Filipinos; and Formosa and Korea, known officially as Chosen, once belonging to China, are now part of the Empire of Japan.

The whole empire is made up of about four thousand islands, of which thirteen are reckoned as great islands, the largest being Hondo, on which live about four fifths of the Japanese people. Other large islands are Shikoku, Kiushiu, Sado, Oki, Awaji, Iki, and Tsuchima. Yezo and the so-called "Thousand Isles" are far to the north. These isles of the long-continued archipelago are farther north than the northernmost part of the United States, and those farthest south are in the tropic region. Japanese territory altogether covers 163,000 square miles, making a total area a little larger than California. Including the Asiatic peninsula of Korea, annexed to Japan in 1910, and of Formosa, annexed in 1904, the population is about 66,000,000.

The constitution of Japan is that of a monarchy with representative institutions, based on German forms. Executive power is vested in the emperor, under the advice of his cabinet ministers, chosen by him and responsible to him. The Imperial Diet consists of the House of Peers and the House of Representatives. The former is composed of all adult men of the imperial family, other persons appointed by the emperor, and certain public officials in each city of the first class. The House of Representatives is composed of members elected from each district of the empire. The country is divided and subdivided, for local administration, into prefectures, municipalities, and counties, towns, and villages.

In 1871 a national system of education was established, largely with the aid of American teachers. Instead of the old teaching, given in temples or in private houses, where the children sat on the floor and learned only the rudiments of arithmetic and literature, the pupils are taught in graded classes in schoolhouses built and arranged in modern western style. Japan has three universities, more than 26,000 elementary schools, and numerous middle, high, and normal schools,



JAPANESE TRENCHES IN MANCHURIA

European soldiers are now scoring the countryside with hundreds of miles of trenches just like these

many schools for special studies, such as music, science, commerce, agriculture, the fine arts, and naval and military instruction.

As in many countries of Europe, military service is compulsory. Service is for two or three years in the ranks, and then five years and four months in the reserves. After serving seven years and four months in the first line, the men are transferred to the *kobi,* which corresponds to the German Landwehr, or first reserves. This service is for ten years, and the men next enter the territorial or home-defense army, serving two years and eight months. Up to 1914 the total peace strength was 225,000 officers and men; the war footing 740,000.

The navy consists of four dreadnoughts, ten battle-ships of the first class and four of the second class, twenty-nine steel cruisers, ninety-five torpedo-boat destroyers, sixty-four torpedo boats, and sixteen submarines. About 36,000 officers and men are on the active list.

Japan became involved in the war because of her treaty of alliance with Great Britain. On August 4, 1914, Great Britain asked Japan what she could expect in the way of naval assistance for the protection of British shipping in the Pacific. Japan agreed to join Great Britain, provided that she be allowed to demand and enforce the evacuation by Germany of Kiau-Chau, a territory embracing about 200 square miles, "leased" from China for ninety-nine years, March 6, 1898, after its seizure by force in November, 1897. Great Britain assented, on the condition that the territory be returned to China after the war. Japan consented, and sent an ultimatum, expiring at noon on August 24, to Germany, "advising" the evacuation of the port of Tsing-tau, and the disarmament of warships in that harbor. Germany ignored the ultimatum, war was immediately declared, and Japanese forces promptly dispatched to invest Tsing-tau. Such is the official history of Japan's participation in the war; but it is doubtful if the treaty with Great Britain would have brought Japan into the fray had it not been for the bitter feeling against Germany which Japan has nursed since 1895, when Germany's threats forced her to give up Port Arthur after her victory over China. A grievance of a more sentimental character, but perhaps none the less strong for that, is the kaiser's flaunting of the "Yellow Peril," and the treatment of the Japanese by the Germans in conformity with that insulting watchword.

VIEWS IN THE HAGUE

1. Place du Grand Marché. 2. Le Musée (Maurits Huis). 3. Royal Palace. 4. The Vijver

CHAPTER XI

THE HAGUE CONFERENCE

At a time when almost the whole of Europe and the most powerful military nation of Asia are in arms, and a war of staggering dimensions is in progress, it may seem that a reference to The Hague Conference and the efforts hitherto made to promote universal peace can be met only with derision. The peace palace at The Hague, "the capital of the world," appears for the time being like a monument to the fatuity of those who have had faith in the nobler side of mankind, and the tomb of the blasted hopes of impracticable visionaries. The outlook certainly is gloomy; but, utopian as the idea may seem, the cause of peace may nevertheless be powerfully advanced by this war. Civilization cannot be dissolved in blood; and there is ground for the hope that the frightful catastrophe which has befallen mankind by its insane competition in war-ships and armament may bring it to its senses, and lead the people who have had to pay the cost of this war in the lives of their loved ones to determine once for all that they will no longer submit to the chiefs whose frantic greed for territory and military glory have plunged them into misery and ruin.

In 1801, England, fearing that Napoleon would coerce the Danes into placing their powerful fleet in his hands, sent Lord Nelson to Copenhagen. Although Denmark was then at peace with England and had as yet done her no injury, Nelson destroyed the Danish fleet. In 1914 Germany, though pledged by treaty to respect the neutrality of Belgium, invaded that country and overran it with a huge army. Such has been the progress of a century in international morality. To those who wage war, the solemn obligations of a treaty are as lightly regarded as human lives, and it is evident that the conventions of The Hague Conference, to which the nations of the world have bound themselves, are likely to receive scant courtesy while the war is in progress. We cannot help feeling, nevertheless, that The Hague

Conference was a distinct achievement of civilization, shining still like a good deed in a naughty world, and a brief account of it may have more than an academic interest.

The first peace conference, called at the instance of the Emperor of Russia, sat at The Hague—the seat of the government of the Netherlands, though not its official capital—from May 18 to July 29, 1899. One hundred delegates from the European Powers, the United States, Mexico, China, Japan, Siam, and Persia were in session. The smaller American republics were not invited to attend. The Conference discussed the limitation of armaments, the adjustment by arbitration of international disputes, and measures for rendering land warfare more humane. It was agreed that the principles of the Geneva Convention regarding war on land should be applied to naval warfare. The chief accomplishment of the convention was the establishment of a permanent court of arbitration, which provides the machinery for arbitration of such disputes as any of the nations may desire to submit to it, and the foundation of an international bureau of this court, under the control of a permanent administrative council consisting of the diplomatic representatives of the signatory Powers to the government of the Netherlands, and presided over by the Dutch minister of foreign affairs.

A second conference was called by the Emperor of Russia in 1907, and it sat from June 15 to October 18, two hundred and fifty-six delegates being present. In the second conference the smaller Powers, excluded from the first conference, were represented; and their claims to equal representation with the great Powers were a cause of dissension. It was finally decided that all the signatory Powers, large and small, shall have the right to nominate not more than four members to the permanent court of arbitration.

The signatory powers are under no obligation to resort to the court of arbitration, and two countries may choose whom they please to act as arbitrators in any dispute between them; but if they decide to submit their differences to The Hague tribunal, the judges or arbitrators must be chosen from among the members of the permanent court. This court, of course, has no means of enforcing its decisions, and very little to guide it in the way of a definite body of international law commanding general respect. We are still far from the time

when a great Power may be haled to the court at The Hague and forced to do justice to a small one, by legal injunction.

The Hague tribunal, nevertheless, has by no means been a dead letter. In the year 1902 it tried its first case, the issue of the pious fund of the Californias, between the United States and Mexico, and in 1904 it adjusted the vexed question of the preferential claims of the creditor nations of Venezuela. In 1910 it settled the famous dispute of long standing between Great Britain and the United States over the North Atlantic fisheries. Its latest decisions, rendered May 6, 1913, were in the "Carthage" and "Manouba" cases, between France and Italy. In all, it has rendered judgment in thirteen cases—an average of nearly one a year since its establishment, some of which might easily have led to war had it not been for its friendly intervention.

The second conference also provided for the establishment of an international prize court, to act as a court of appeal from national marine courts, upon decisions relating to vessels taken as prizes during war. Great Britain strongly objected to a court in which questions involving her great maritime interests might be decided by "the vote of Santo Domingo or Turkey."

The question of disarmament was brought up, but was discussed in a perfunctory and half-hearted way, as it was felt to be beyond the sphere of practical consideration. Consent—though not unanimous in every instance—was won for the following provisions:

(1) Neutral territory shall be inviolable, and combatants may take refuge therein under custody.

(2) Belligerents shall not establish wireless stations in neutral territory.

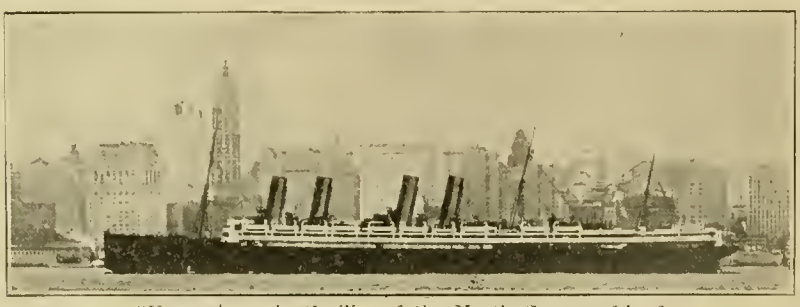
(3) Belligerent ships shall take only sufficient supplies and sufficient fuel in a neutral port to take them to the nearest port in their own country.

(4) Nations shall not begin war without a previous declaration of war, stating the causes.

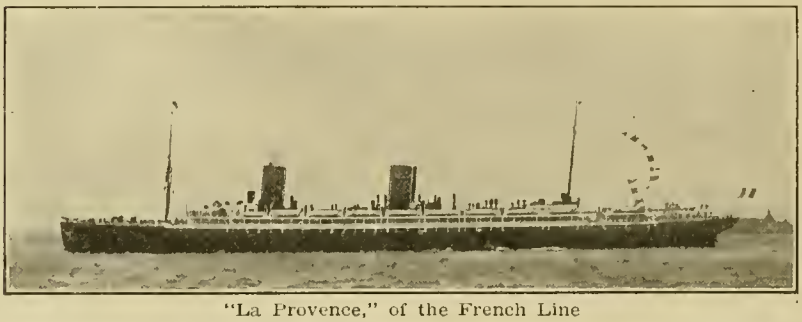
(5) Neutral Powers must be promptly notified of a state of war.

(6) Explosives must not be dropped from balloons; and expanding bullets ("dum-dums") and projectiles purposely designed to give off deadly fumes must not be used.

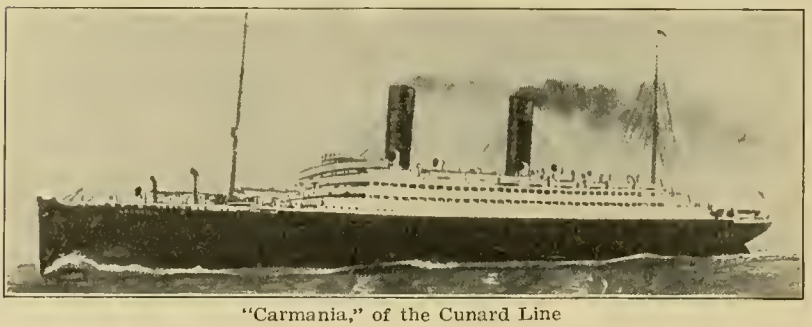
"Mauretania," of the Cunard Line



"Kronprinzessin Cecilie, of the North German Lloyd



"La Provence," of the French Line



"Carmania," of the Cunard Line

ONCE COMMERCE CONVEYERS, NOW COMMERCE DESTROYERS

These famous transatlantic liners are all in the naval service, and the "Carmania" has been victorious in action with a hostile ship

(7) Indemnification may be exacted from a nation that violates any of the rules of war.

(8) Merchant vessels must be allowed a fixed time in which to clear from an enemy's port at the opening of hostilities.

(9) Submarine floating mines and automobile torpedoes which do not quickly become harmless after they are set, discharged, or break away from their moorings must not be employed.

(10) Undefended towns and buildings and those ports which are defenseless or defended only by mines, must not be bombarded.

(11) Fishing-boats and those engaged upon a scientific, religious, or charitable mission are not liable to capture.

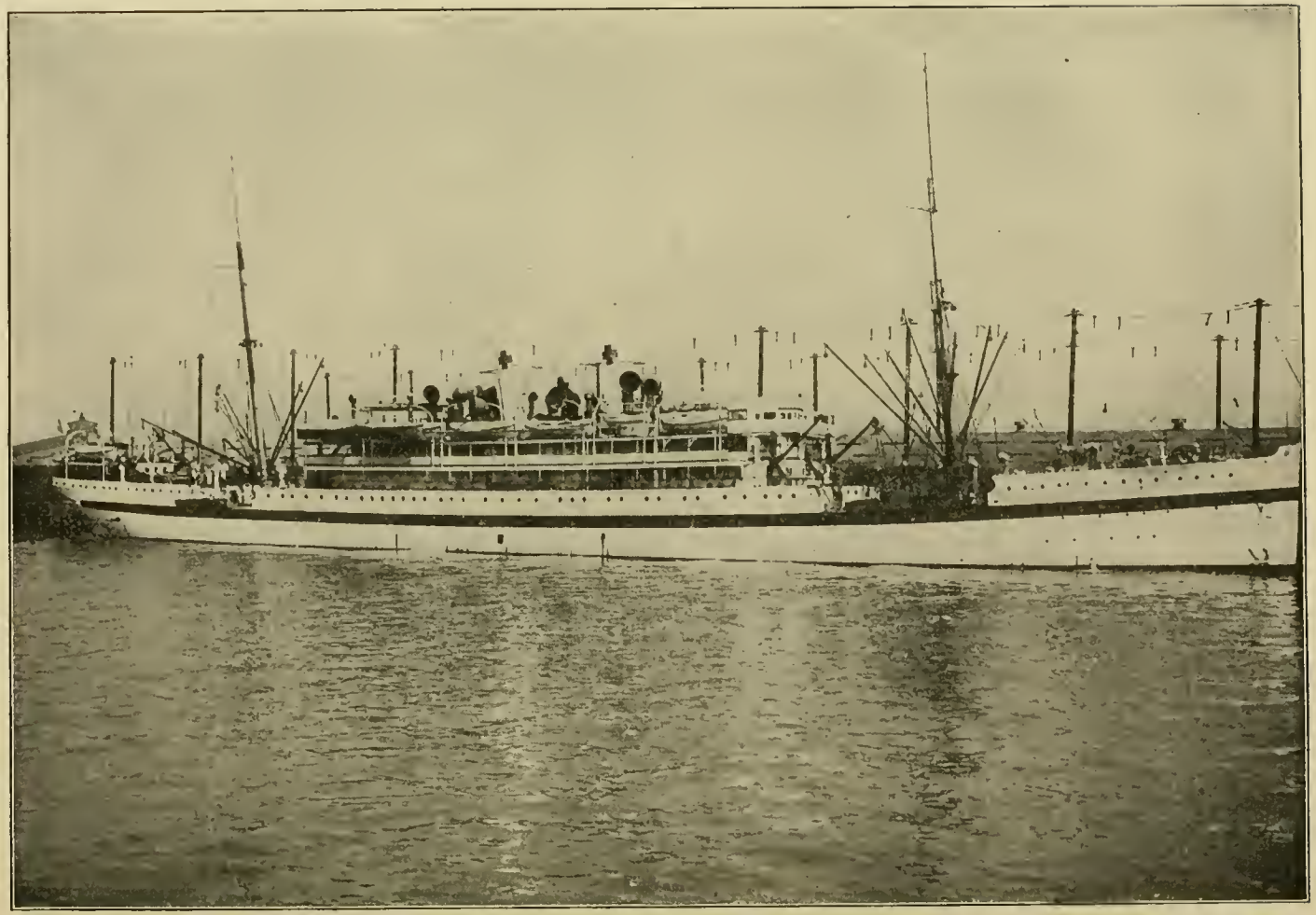
(12) The inviolability of the postal service must be respected.

Since this war began the Powers, or some of them, have played fast and loose with many of the foregoing provisions. The humane spirit to which they give expression is utterly foreign to the instinct of war. Nations go to war for the purpose of destroying one another, and it is of little use to ask them to abide by any rules that might deprive them of an opportunity to cripple the enemy.

Another principle affirmed by the second Hague Convention is of great significance in American affairs, but has no bearing on the present European war. This was the recognition of the so-called "Drago Doctrine," which maintains that no government can collect debts due its nationals from the government of another Power, unless an offer to submit the question to arbitration be first made, or the delinquent government refuse to abide by the judgment of the court of arbitration.

The money for the building of the handsome peace palace that is the permanent home of the international court and is designed to provide an assembly hall for future conferences, was the gift of Andrew Carnegie.

Discouraging as the prospect now seems, we may venture to hope that The Hague has by no means seen its last peace conference, and that representatives of the nations now at war will some day meet there again to adopt measures that will make impossible another such contest as that which is now shaking the world.



AN AMERICAN CONTRIBUTION TO THE WAR

The Hospital-ship "Red Cross," Sent to Europe with Doctors, Nurses and Medical Supplies

CHAPTER XII

THE EFFECT OF THE WAR ON THE WESTERN WORLD

War, viewed in its widest perspective, is a disaster; viewed from the aspect of personal bereavement, it is a desolation; yet it is invariable that, at certain points between these two, war produces prosperity. The western world, though not directly embroiled in the European conflict, is keenly affected thereby, suffering in certain fields of activity and being greatly benefited in others. Rightly to determine what will be the favorable and the unfavorable results of the war is a vital issue to Americans in every branch of business life.

For more than a year preceding the actual outbreak of hostilities, trade conditions in the United States had been below the mean of an equal balance, and by June 30, 1914, the conditions of money and of industry, considered jointly, showed business to have reached a lower point than had been recorded since the panic of 1907. At the same time, confidence had been reëstablished in the country, owing to reports of a large cotton yield, a bumper grain crop, and a beginning of returning financial strength after the currency turmoil of the spring. Upon this condition of steady decline and heralded strength the declaration of war in Europe fell as a thunderbolt.

In considering the effect of the tremendous conflict, conditions in Europe during the months preceding the actual mobilization of the armies should be brought into their due relation. The markets in Germany, France, and England were even more unsound and panicky than were those of the United States, and, in addition, they lacked the strength which, in America, was anticipated from the crop reports. Since 1912 the bourses of Europe had been liquidating American securities, at a sacrifice, indeed, in order to secure as much gold as possible. Partly this selection of American securities as the best to sell was due to the stereotyped maxim of the seller that it is wise to unload first securities belonging to lands at a distance, and the

WAR-BOUND LINERS AT NEW YORK

The Hamburg-American Docks at Hoboken during the War, the "Vaterland," the Largest Ship in the World, in the Foreground

knowledge that American gold was easy to secure added a considerable impetus to the liquidation.

The United States, therefore, was bled of her stock of gold. In 1914, up to July 25, $79,800,000 in gold bars had been shipped to Europe from the United States. Of this quantity, $63,800,000 had been shipped in the ten weeks prior to the last week in July. In the three days, July 27-30, $28,600,000 more was shipped, much of this being for unlisted securities delivered on the "Olympic," their character and total value not being accurately known. This pressure upon the gold reserve of the United States, especially coming when it was necessary to move the crop, rendered economic conditions such as to require the issuance of an emergency currency of $80,000,000 to $90,000,000. The principal feature of this movement of gold to Europe was the astounding stability shown by American finances under the strain.

Not only did the European bourses find it necessary to realize on United States securities, but, as far as possible, they did the same with those of other countries. This drew gold from those sources also and produced elsewhere the same tightening of money. Not having such opportunity for releasing the stringency as the United States possessed in the emergency-currency legislation, these neutral countries became greatly in need of money. Herein lay an immediate chance for the investment of American capital, in the buying of high-grade foreign securities which had been held preferentially for Europe. The interest is high, the risks are not great, and this field of investment, long withheld from American capitalists, is now thrown open.

Immediately upon the opening of the war, there was in certain lines a natural paralysis of American business, which is likely to give a false idea as to the adverse effect of the European situation. All industries that depend on Europe for their raw materials, or ship raw material to foreign manufacturers, or find in European countries the best markets for their products, are bound to suffer heavily at first. Naturally, the war conditions raised the price of those articles that appear in the tables of imports as having come from Europe in large quantities. At the same time, if it continues, it will cause a drop in prices of all those articles that are produced in America in quantities,

THE FRENCH CRUISER "MONTCALM" AT SAN DIEGO

The "Montcalm" in Company with British and Japanese Cruisers Patrolled the Pacific Coast of America

which have formed the largest part of our exports. This follows the general rule of supply and demand—the supply being reduced in the former case and increased in the latter.

From this temporary numbing of business there must be a rebound, and the American manufacturer has already perceived the opportunity that is afforded him by the cessation of imports from his European competitors. Houses which heretofore have only been able to secure a small share of the trade of the United States, by reason of foreign competition from countries where the wage-rate is low, now are able to win the whole domestic trade. Numerous examples might be quoted. To take a small case—yet one which appeals to every household—the manufacturers of toys and games of every kind will reap a rich harvest. The "made in Germany" novelties for the Christmas trade will be replaced by "made in America" articles.

The watch-and-clock industry has received a considerable stimulation from the cessation of Swiss competition. All the textiles, despite their loss of French workmen, show signs of taking advantage of the situation. California wines will secure a public notice which the overshadowing effect of foreign vintages has partly hidden until this time. In many lines of industry, Americans have begun the production of American-made goods, and it is expected that before long a domestic article will have a reputation as high as that of the imported product.

The export of cheap manufactured articles from the United States into the European commerce fields has been done only on a small scale, as the bulk of the export has been of articles classified as luxuries; but the opportunity is good as soon as the war comes to an end. Then the countries of Europe will desire to resume life upon its former scale, and some time will elapse before their industries are again in perfected condition. It is to be remembered, however, that if the war should continue for any considerable length of time, Europe would be too poor to buy any but the cheapest articles, and usually the cheapest grades are the least profitable to the producers.

Even these opportunities, however, though allied to the extension of European custom, do not promise a sufficiently permanent trade to justify the building of a plant, since the conflict may be brief. In such case, the European manufactory would immediately begin

A DESTROYER IN THE PANAMA CANAL

The Opening of This Great Waterway Comes at a Time When the United States May Divert Some of South America's Trade Which Formerly Went to Europe

operations again, and the capitalist in the United States who had begun the new venture might find himself with a useless or losing factory on his hands. By running a present plant to full force, however, he might make a considerable sum of money, and then, when normal conditions returned, those who had helped him would share in the benefit and regain the former situation.

International relations have become so complicated in modern times, and the articles that are now deemed to be essentials are so vastly more numerous than they were a century ago, that the question of military supplies is on an entirely new basis.

An example of the immediate importance of the progress of the war is seen in its relation to the naval situation. As long as the control of the seas is in the hands of England, it stands to reason that facilities will be provided for the safe-conduct of ships handling our export trade. English factories, therefore, may be regarded as elements leading directly to the prosperity of the United States. On the other hand, as Germany's part in naval warfare is rather that of forcing England to the defensive than of endeavoring to secure absolute control of the seas, her activities upon the water are much more likely to be those of a commerce-destroyer. Accordingly, in this light, German naval victories may be considered as factors tending to hinder the prosperity of the United States.

Realization of the close interdependence of nations brings prominently into view the fact that the profits received by one nation at the expense of another form at bottom a fictitious prosperity. The depression following the immediate announcement of the war is likely to give place to a long, slow advance in the commodities that the United States can produce and in the securing of fair prices for them. At the same time, after this upward movement has been consummated, the actual pinch will begin to appear, for millions of our customers will have been slain on the field of battle, thousands of our best artisans, who returned to the Fatherland to join the colors, will remain there to take the vacant places of the men that were killed in battle. The United States thus will lose by reason of the depletion in numbers of her European consumers, and also since the war will have been the prime cause in the loss of an efficient section of her producing population.

THE CANADIAN CRUISER "RAINBOW"

All the British Colonies Have Placed Their Naval Forces at the Disposal of the British Admiralty

The cessation of certain exports during the continuance of the war will have a deadening effect on certain industries. For example, the Standard Oil Company laid off fifteen thousand men within a few days after the declaration of war by Germany, owing to the fact that a large part of her oil exports go to that country. The exports and imports of automobiles—which may be classed as a luxury—have fallen practically to nothing, and automobile manufacturers are reducing their outputs to fit the needs of the domestic trade as well as developing their opportunities in South American countries.

One of the fields of business that have been the first to be affected by the war conditions is that of agricultural implements. The annual exports of agricultural machinery from the United States have been more than $30,000,000, and this business—in which America is supreme among the nations of the world—has dwindled proportionately. In Europe this season the crops will have to be garnered by the women and children; indeed, so urgent has become the need of gathering in the harvest that the governments of the respective States have issued a call to the women, urging them to sacrifice everything and become field hands, for the purpose of saving food. The fear of starvation is an ever-present menace in times of war. The difficulty of securing the grain crop is certain to be greatly increased by reason of the lack of ability to manage the farm machinery. Not only is this owing to the lack of men to work the machines, but also because the horses have been commandeered from most of the farms for military purposes.

The crops of the United States hold this year a unique place. With a demand for foodstuffs, especially cereals and meat, almost at the highest point possible, the country has secured a bumper crop and the packers also foretell a good season. Yet, though the crop is so large and the opportunity of actually sending wheat to Europe is so small, causing the holding up of large supplies, the domestic price increases. It is pointed out by J. Ward Warner, President of the Produce Exchange, that there has been an exorbitant amount of speculative buying of foodstuffs.

It has long been a custom of the European nations to keep supplies of money on deposit in New York for buying corn, wheat, and flour. For several weeks prior to the declaration of war, orders for

foodstuffs came in thick and fast, and the first two weeks after war was declared a vast amount of material was ready for shipment to Europe and waiting for bottoms in which to move it. Canada's gift to the empire of one million bags of flour saved England from an awkward situation, as her actual supplies were running low. The rapid action of the British fleet in clearing the North Atlantic and safeguarding her own interests at the same time relieved the tie-up in American ports and allowed the movement of the foodstuffs from the congested areas.

The situation with regard to foodstuffs possesses certain complications by reason of the fact that these are classed among the group of subjects to be considered as conditional contraband. Absolute contraband consists of articles that are used in warfare, such as guns, ammunition, and military vehicles. The principal articles listed as conditional contraband are foodstuffs, forage, clothing, boots and shoes, bullion, ships and boats, railway and telegraph material, balloons and flying machines, fuels and lubricants, barbed wire, and scientific instruments. All these, it will be noted, are substances that would be likely to be of service in an extended war.

How thoroughly this embargo applies is strongly evidenced by the fate that has befallen the apple crop. The International Apple-Shippers' Association held its regular annual convention at Boston in the first week of August, immediately after the outbreak of the war. At this convention orders usually are received representing the movement of about half the apple crop. The shippers for years have been enabled to place their crop by this means, and it has been their custom to go home, after the convention, with the final arrangements made concerning shipments, and to rush the fruit away. But at the convention this year there was not a single large order, and no apples are being packed for European shipment.

Cotton is another crop that is hard hit by the war. Despite of the fact that the crop is of unusual excellence in the United States, this will be of little service to cotton-growers immediately. By far the largest amount of the raw cotton produced in this country is exported to English mills, only one fourth of it, and that of the lower grades, being retained in the United States. There has been a large over-production of cotton goods, and for some time past the cotton

CANADIAN FOOT ARTILLERY

Canada Is Said to Have Stripped Herself of Guns to Reinforce the Imperial Artillery. This Photograph Shows a Company of Stalwart Canadian Gunners Moving a Refractory 60-Pounder

mills in the United Kingdom have been running on half time. As the warehouses in the Orient and elsewhere are filled with manufactured cotton goods, no profit worth considering will accrue to American cotton-growers. But, should the war last long enough to deplete the stocks now on hand, there will be the opportunity of a lifetime in the cotton business. Not only will the American manufacturer be able to dispose of his output at a good profit, but he will have also the opportunity of manufacturing a higher grade of goods than has heretofore been produced in the United States.

In the metal trades the market is strong. With a widespread and possibly a long war in prospect, pig iron, sheet steel, bars, tubes, billets, semi-finished iron and steel products are in demand. The demand on this department is intense, as much of this material can be utilized in the manufacture of munitions of war. Copper, which is used far more in building construction than in war material, shows a decline, mines are shutting down, and there is a general depression through the industry. A recovery of price, followed by a steadying, is anticipated.

With the conditions in the several industries as they have been outlined, the next consideration that determines the effect of the war upon the western world is that of shipping. The days have long passed since the American clipper was the queen of the seas. During the first thirty-five years of the nineteenth century, no nation was more justly proud of its merchant marine than the American. But about 1840 occurred the change from wooden ship to iron, and thence to steel. That was the knell of the American commercial power on the sea. Having resources of coal and iron and cheaper labor than could be secured in the United States, England plunged into the manufacture of steel vessels. A high protection was put upon iron, and this doubly handicapped the American shipbuilder. In addition to this, the prohibition which refused to foreign-built vessels the right to fly the American flag had the effect of driving the stars and stripes from the sea.

Since those days a new factor has entered into the situation. This is the fact that improved machinery and efficiency of handling now enable the United States to make steel as cheaply here as anywhere. Moreover, while the wages are higher than in any other shipbuilding

country, the American is a much more rapid workman. Many forces are at work making arrangements to seize the bulk of the carrying trade, if possible. Experts are unanimously agreed that the purchase of every foreign vessel that is seaworthy should be made, that the laws should be amended to admit the American registry of such purchases and in every way possible to consider American vessels as a commercial factor.

For a considerable time the advance of the United States to the position of one of the first Powers of the world has made it evident that an American mercantile marine is a necessity, and that this country is distinctly failing to fulfil a part of its mission in neglecting this feature of its development. One sidelight was thrown on this question in the battle-ship cruise around the world, when it was found that an American battle-ship fleet could not be moved without the assistance of foreign colliers. The present war has thrown the need of a mercantile marine into still clearer light. From the point of view of commerce, but also with the question of national prestige at stake, there is no denying the importance of this development.

Under circumstances similar to those which confronted the United States at the opening of the war, viz., the knowledge that thousands of her citizens were stranded in the countries of belligerents, almost any nation in the world could have sent to their assistance vessels under her own neutral flag. Great hardships were endured, and serious loss of property resulted, from the fact that America had no ships to send. It is true that a situation such as this might never occur again; but that it could occur at all shows a weak link in the chain of American citizenship. It hardly needs a prophet to declare that one of the lasting effects of the European war upon the western world will be the development of a great mercantile marine on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts.

Intimately connected with the question of ships, and also with the loss of foreign trade by European nations now grappled in conflict and spending certainly not less than $30,000,000 a day (the statisticians declare that it is $50,000,000), is the opportunity in South and Central America. The Monroe Doctrine, since the mediation question in Mexico, is largely giving place to the so-called "A. B. C."

THE WAR IN CANADA

Canadian Volunteers Leaving Toronto for Valcartier, Where Canada Mobilized Her Forces

policy, and the effect of this among the republics of South America has been marked.

"All South America," says John Barrett, director-general of the Pan-American Union, "is an enormous purchaser of manufactured products, and she secures by far the greatest part of them from Europe, buying $700,000,000 worth annually. Of this sum, almost two thirds is from Germany alone. She also sells $800,000,000 worth of her products to Europe."

Whatever may be the final result of the war, so far as territorial changes of the map of Europe are concerned, there is no question that the manufacturing interests of Germany will be seriously crippled. The trade of South America, therefore, may be handed over to the merchants of the United States as if on a golden platter. All that is needed to establish a relation of great mutual advantage is to accept this in the spirit in which it is tendered, on our part undertaking to do what Europe does—handle her trade in the manner that South America wants and not by the methods to which many big corporations and business firms are hidebound. A billion and a half dollars' worth of trade is there waiting for the United States to pick up, and this volume of commerce is being increased year by year with the rapid development of the Latin-American republics.

"The war will do much to increase our trade prospects in South America and to enable us to tighten our grip on the business opportunities in this country," said Frank A. Vanderlip, president of the National City Bank. "Much depends on whether we take advantage of our opportunity to establish steamship lines and other means of transport for carrying our products to South America, bringing back their goods in our own ships."

While it must be remembered that Brazil and Argentina and Chile are not quite a Tom Tiddler's ground, where gold and silver may be picked up for the stooping, at least it is certain that one of the rarest opportunities for a young man is that of a business scout in South America, representing the United States with the same vigor and skill that have deen displayed by the German scouts. The scout system, which was devised by Germany to secure preferential trade with countries all over the world, has been the most effective form of salesmanship ever seen. It is America's chance to do it now.

The consular reports are of great assistance; but the scout, traveling far and wide through a country, with his eye keen for business conditions and with his intentions set on making his firm the dominating one in the business in South America, is of tenfold more service.

With the establishment of a merchant marine, the seizure of the South American trade, and the extension of American trade into the Orient, the evil effects of the war upon America will be minimized, and, at the last, may be turned into permanent benefits. The opening of these avenues to trade will serve to reduce the disaster that this war brings upon the labor world. Hundreds of thousands of men will be thrown out of work because the factories lack an outlet for their wares; hundreds of thousands of families will be left starving in America because of the war in Europe; millions will suffer deprivation of their accustomed state of living because the cost of commodities is rising to a point that will be almost prohibitive.

On the other hand, as soon as business resumes again, there will be an era of unexampled prosperity for the workingman. Large numbers of reservists have left the United States for their own countries, many of them skilled workers of great value to America. Thousands never will return, but in their home land will take the places of the men who have been killed or disabled on the battle-field. Moreover, immigration has stopped absolutely, and even a few months of such a stoppage, with the natural increase of opportunity in this country, will afford abundant employment to all on the resumption of normal conditions.

The western world will suffer, since in these modern times all nations are more of kin than ever before in the history of the world. In the United States, members of racial stocks now battling against one another live in peace and friendship side by side. There is no corner in all this wide land where news of triumph on the one side does not carry sorrow to others.

"Reactionary autocracy," says Samuel Gompers, "cannot permanently stay progress. The peoples of Europe will emerge from the carnage and smoke of battle with renewed determination to establish principles and institutions that are in harmony with industrial, social, and political development. This war will constitute a more urgent reason to destroy monarchical institutions, autocratic power, and to

banish militarism—a reason forced upon the consciousness of all by maimed and dead bodies of fathers and sons, husbands and brothers, by the starved under-development of women and children, and by terrible desolation brooding over the continent like an evil spirit."

In such a conflict, in such a time of stress, America indeed may be neutral, may be outside the field of expressed participation, but Americans are not. There are few men who will feel the pinch of the impending adversity as keenly as they feel the haunting burden of the death-tool on the battle-fields of Europe, few men who will rejoice more in the prosperity that will so soon follow, as they will rejoice that peace has come again upon the earth. There is no American who will wish to batten upon the spoils of the dreadful feast. In no country in the world will the thankfulness be greater when the sword is again beaten into the plowshare than in these United States, whose population is formed largely of elements that elsewhere are in discord, and who have found worthy work and noble peace in a land of democratic institutions.

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WOODROW WILSON

The Good Will of the United States Has Been Eagerly Sought by All the Powers Now at War. President Wilson Has Handled Delicate Questions Involving the Neutrality of the United States with Great Firmness and Skill, and His Official Utterances Have Been Notable for the Elegance of Their Literary Form

CHAPTER XIII

STATE PAPERS AND OFFICIAL CORRESPONDENCE

In the following pages the reader will find the full text of a number of important state papers bearing upon the war—ultimatums, declarations of war, manifestos, and messages exchanged by eminent personages. Because of their solemn import, these documents possess a profound interest; and they will form an historical record of great value.

Ultimatum Sent by Austria-Hungary to Servia, July 23, 1914

On March 31, 1909, the Royal Servian Minister in Vienna on the instructions of the Servian Government, made the following statements to the Imperial and Royal Government:

"Servia recognizes that the *fait accompli* regarding Bosnia has not affected her rights, and consequently she will conform to the decisions that the Powers will take in conformity with Article XXV of the Treaty of Berlin. At the same time that Servia submits to the advice of the Powers she undertakes to renounce the attitude of protest and opposition which she has adopted since October last. She undertakes on the other hand to modify the direction of her policy with regard to Austria-Hungary and to live in future on good neighborly terms with the latter."

The history of recent years, and in particular the painful events of June 27 last, have shown the existence in Servia of a subversive movement with the object of detaching a part of Austria-Hungary from the monarchy. The movement, which had its birth under the eyes of the Servian Government, has had consequences on both sides of the Servian frontier in the shape of acts of terrorism and a series of outrages and murders.

Far from carrying out the formal undertakings contained in the declaration of March 31, 1909, the Royal Servian Government has done nothing to repress these movements. It has permitted the criminal machinations of various societies and associations, and has tolerated unrestrained language on the part of the press, apologies for the perpetrators of outrages, and participation of officers and functionaries in subversive agitation. It has permitted an unwholesome propaganda in public instruction. In short, it has permitted all the manifestations which have incited the Servian population to hatred of the monarchy and contempt of its institutions.

This culpable tolerance of the Royal Servian Government had ceased at the moment when the events of June 28 last proved its fatal consequence to the whole world.

It results from the disposition and confessions of the outrage of June 28 that the Sarajevo assassinations were hatched in Belgrade, that the arms and explosives with which the murderers were provided had been given to them by Servian officers and functionaries belonging to the Narodna Obrava, and, finally, that the passage into Bosnia of the criminals and their arms was organized and effected by the chiefs of the Servian frontier service.

The above-mentioned results of the magisterial investigation do not permit the Austro-Hungarian Government to pursue any longer the attitude of expectant forbearance which it has maintained for years in face of the machinations hatched in Belgrade and thence propagated in the territories of the monarchy. These results, on the contrary, impose on it the duty of putting an end to intrigues which form a perpetual menace to the tranquillity of the monarchy.

To achieve this end, the Imperial and Royal Government sees itself compelled to demand from the Servian Government a formal assurance that it condemns this dangerous propaganda against the monarchy and the territories belonging to it, and that the

Royal Servian Government shall no longer permit these machinations and this criminal and perverse propaganda.

In order to give a formal character to this undertaking the Royal Servian Government shall publish on the front page of its official journal for July 26 the following declaration:

"The Royal Government of Servia condemns the propaganda directed against Austria-Hungary, i. e., the ensemble of tendencies of which the final aim is to detach from the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy territories belonging to it, and it sincerely deplores the fatal consequences of these criminal proceedings.

"The Royal Government regrets that Servian officers and functionaries participated in the above-mentioned propaganda and thus compromised the good, neighborly relations to which the Royal Government was solemnly pledged by its declaration of March 31, 1909. The Royal Government, which disapproves and repudiates all idea of interfering or attempt to interfere with the destinies of the inhabitants of any part whatsoever of Austria-Hungary, considers it its duty formally to warn officers and functionaries, and the whole population of the kingdom, that henceforth it will proceed with the utmost rigor against persons who may be guilty of such machinations, which it will use all its efforts to anticipate and suppress."

This declaration shall simultaneously be communicated to the Royal Army as an order of the day by His Majesty the King, and shall be published in the official bulletin of the army.

The Royal Servian Government further undertakes:

1. To suppress any publications which incite to hatred and contempt of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy and the general tendency of which is directed against its territorial integrity.

2. To dissolve immediately the society styled Narodna Obrana, to confiscate all its means of propaganda and to proceed in the same manner against other societies and their branches in Servia which are addicted to propaganda against the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy. The Royal Government shall take the necessary measures to prevent the societies dissolved from continuing their activity under another name and form.

3. To eliminate without delay from public instruction in Servia, not only as regards the teaching body, but also as regards the methods of instruction, everything that serves or might serve to foment the propaganda against Austria-Hungary.

4. To remove from military service and from the Administration in general all officers and functionaries guilty of propaganda against the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, whose names and deeds the Austro-Hungarian Government reserves to itself the right of communicating to the Royal Government.

5. To accept the collaboration in Servia of representatives of the Austro-Hungarian Government in the suppression of the subversive movement directed against the territorial integrity of the monarchy.

6. To take judicial proceedings against accessories to the plot of June 28 who are on Servian territory. Delegates of the Austro-Hungarian Government will take part in the investigation relating thereto.

7. To proceed without delay to the arrest of Major Voija Tankositch and of the individual named Milan Ciganovitch, a Servian State employee, who have been compromised by the results of the magisterial inquiry at Sarajevo.

8. To prevent by effective measures the cooperation of the Servian authorities in the illicit traffic in arms and explosives across the frontier, to dismiss and punish severely officials of the frontier service at Achabatz and Loznica guilty of having assisted the perpetrators of the Sarajevo crime by facilitating the passage of the frontier for them.

9. To furnish the Austro-Hungarian Government with explanations regarding the unjustifiable utterances of high Servian officials both in Servia and abroad, who, notwithstanding their official position, did not hesitate after the crime of June 28 to express themselves in interviews in terms of hostility to the Austro-Hungarian Government; and finally,

10. To notify the Austro-Hungarian Government without delay of the execution of

the measures comprised under the proceeding heads.

The Austro-Hungarian Government expects the reply of the Servian Government at the latest by 6 o'clock on Saturday evening, the 25th of July.

Circular Note to the Powers Issued by the Austro-Hungarian Foreign Office, July 24, 1914

The Imperial and Royal Government has felt itself compelled to forward on Thursday the 23d inst., to the Royal Servian Government through its Imperial and Royal Minister in Belgrade the following note:

[The Austro-Hungarian ultimatum to Servia was here inserted.]

I have the honor to request your Excellency to bring the contents of this note before the Government to which you are accredited, and to accompany this with the following explanations: On the 31st March, 1909, the Royal Servian Government addressed a statement to Austria-Hungary, the text of which is repeated above. Almost on the following day Servia's policy took a direction tending to rouse ideas subversive to the Austro-Hungarian monarchy in the minds of Servian subjects, and thereby to prepare for the detachment of those districts of Austria-Hungary which adjoin the Servian frontier.

A large number of agents are employed in furthering by all possible means the agitation against Austria-Hungary to corrupt the youth of those territories of Austria-Hungary bordering on Servia. The spirit of conspiracy which animates Servian political circles and which has left its bloody traces in the history of Servia has grown since the last Balkan crisis. Members of bands who up to the time had found occupation in Macedonia have since placed themselves at the disposal of the terrorist propaganda against Austria-Hungary. The Servian Government has never considered itself obliged to take steps of any kind against the intrigues to which Austria-Hungary has been exposed for years.

The patience which the Imperial and Royal Government has observed toward the provocative attitude of Servia is to be attributed to the fact that she knew herself to be free from all territorial interests and to the hope which she did not abandon that the Servian Government would eventually prize at its worth the friendship of Austria-Hungary. The Imperial and Royal Government thought that a benevolent attitude toward the political interests of Servia would eventually call for a similar attitude from that kingdom.

Austria-Hungary expected an evolution of this nature in the political ideas of Servia more especially at the time following the events of the year 1912, when the Imperial and Royal Government, by its disinterested attitude from any suggestion of ill-will made possible the important extension of Servia.

The sympathy which Austria-Hungary demonstrated in its neighbor nevertheless made no change in the conduct of that kingdom, which continued to permit on its territory a propaganda, the lamentable consequences of which were made evident to the whole world on June 28 this year, when the heir apparent of the dual monarchy and his illustrious consort fell the victims to a plot hatched in Belgrade.

In view of this state of affairs the Imperial and Royal Government found itself compelled to take a fresh and energetic step in Belgrade, of such a nature as to induce the Servian Government to put an end to a movement which threatened the security and integrity of Austria-Hungary. The Imperial and Royal Government is convinced that in taking this step it is acting in complete harmony with the feelings of all civilized nations, which cannot agree that royal assassinations can be made a weapon to be used unpunished in political struggles, and that the peace of Europe may be incessantly disturbed by intrigues which emanate from Belgrade.

In support of these statements, the Imperial and Royal Government holds at the disposal of the Government to which you are accredited a dossier dealing with the Servian propaganda, and showing the connection of this propaganda with the assassination of June 28.

The Reply of Servia to the Austro-Hungarian Ultimatum, July 25, 1914

The Royal Servian Government received the communication of the Imperial and Royal Austro-Hungarian Government of the 23d of this month, and it is persuaded that its reply will remove all misunderstanding tending to threaten or to prejudice the friendly and neighborly relations between the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy and the Kingdom of Servia.

The Royal Government is aware that the protests made both at the tribune of the National Skupshtina and in the declarations and the acts of the State—protests which were cut short by the declaration of the Servian Government made on March 18—have not been renewed toward the great neighboring monarchy on any occasion, and that since this time, both on the part of the Royal Governments which have followed on one another, and on the part of their organs, no attempt has been made with the purpose of changing the political and judicial state of things in this respect.

The Imperial and Royal Government has made no representations save concerning a scholastic book regarding which the Imperial and Royal Government has received an entirely satisfactory explanation. Servia has repeatedly given proofs of her pacific and moderate policy during the Balkan crises, and it is thanks to Servia and the interest of the peace of Europe that this peace has been preserved. The Royal Government cannot be held responsible for manifestations of a private nature, such as newspaper articles and the peaceful work of societies—manifestations which occur in almost all countries as a matter of course, and which, as a general rule, escape official control—all the less in that the Royal Government, when solving a whole series of questions which came up between Servia and Austria-Hungary, has displayed a great readiness to treat, and in this way succeeded in settling the greater number to the advantage of the progress of the two neighboring countries.

It is for this reason that the Royal Government has been painfully surprised by the statements, according to which persons of the kingdom of Servia are said to have taken part in the perpetration of the outrage committed at Sarajevo. It is expected that it would be invited to collaborate in the investigation of everything bearing on this crime, and it was ready to prove by its actions its entire readiness to take steps against all persons with regard to whom communications had been made to it, thus acquiescing in the desire of the Imperial and Royal Government.

The Royal Government is disposed to hand over to the courts any Servian subject, without regard to his situation and rank, for whose complicity in crime of Sarajevo it shall have been furnished with proofs, and especially it engages itself to have published on the front page of the Official Journal of July 13-26 the following announcement:

"The Royal Servian Government condemns all propaganda directed against Austria-Hungary, that is to say, all tendencies as a whole of which the ultimate object is to detach from the Austro-Hungarian monarchy territories which form a part of it, and it sincerely deplores the fatal consequences of these criminal actions. The Royal Government regrets that Servian officials should, according to the communication of the Imperial and Royal Government, have participated in the above-mentioned propaganda, thereby comprising the good neighborly relations to which the Royal Government solemnly pledged itself by its declaration of the 31st March, 1909. The Government which disapproves and repudiates any idea or attempt to interfere in the destinies of the inhabitants of any part of Austria-Hungary whatsoever, considers it its duty to utter a formal warning to the officers, the officials, and the whole population of that kingdom that henceforth it will proceed with the utmost rigor against persons who render themselves guilty of such actions, which it will use all its efforts to prevent and repress."

This announcement shall be brought to the cognizance of the Royal Army by an order of the day issued in the name of His Majesty the King by H. R. H. the Crown Prince Alexander, and shall be published in the next official bulletin of the army.

I. The Royal Government engages itself,

furthermore, to lay before the next regular meeting of the Skupshtina an amendment of the press law, punishing in the severest manner incitements to hate and contempt of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy and also all publications of which the general tendency is directed against the territorial integrity of the monarchy. It undertakes at the forthcoming revision of the Constitution to introduce in Article XXII of the Constitution an amendment whereby the above publications may be confiscated, which is at present categorically forbidden by the terms of Article XXII of the Constitution.

2. The Government does not possess any proof, nor does the note of the Imperial and Royal Government furnish such, that the society Narodna Obrana and other similar societies have up to the present committed any criminal acts of this kind through the instrumentality of one of their members. Nevertheless, the Royal Government will accept the demand of the Imperial and Royal Government and will dissolve the Narodna Obrana Society and any other society which shall agitate against Austria-Hungary.

3. The Royal Servian Government engages itself to eliminate without delay for public instruction in Servia everything which aids or might aid in fomenting the propaganda against Austro-Hungary when the Imperial and Royal Government furnishes facts and proofs of this propaganda.

4. The Royal Government also agrees to remove from the military service (all persons) whom the judicial inquiry proves to have been guilty of acts directed against the integrity of the territory of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, and it expects the Imperial and Royal Government to communicate at a later date the names and the deeds of these officers and officials, for the purpose of the proceedings which will have to be taken.

5. The Royal Government must confess that it is not quite clear as to the sense and object of the demands of the Imperial and Royal Government that Servia should undertake to accept on her territory the collaboration of delegates of the Imperial and Royal Government, but it declares that it will admit whatever collaboration which may be in accord with the principles of international law and criminal procedure, as well as with good neighborly relations.

6. The Royal Government, as goes without saying, considers it to be its duty to open an inquiry against all those who are, or shall eventually prove to have been, involved in the plot of June 28, and who are in Servian territory. As to the participation at this investigation of agents of the Austro-Hungarian authorities delegated for this purpose by the Imperial and Royal Government, the Royal Government cannot accept this demand, for it would be a violation of the Constitution and of the law of criminal procedure. Nevertheless, in concrete cases it might be found possible to communicate the results of the investigation in question to the Austro-Hungarian representatives.

7. On the very evening that the note was handed in the Royal Government arrested Major Voija Tankositch. As for Milan Ciganovitch, who is a subject of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, and who, until June 15, was employed as a beginner in the administration of the railways, it has not yet been possible to (arrest) him. In view of the ultimate inquiry the Imperial and Royal Government is requested to have the goodness to communicate in the usual form as soon as possible the presumptions of guilt as well as the eventual proofs of guilt against these persons which have been collected up to the present in the investigations at Sarajevo.

8. The Servian Government will strengthen and extend the measures taken to prevent the illicit traffic of arms and explosives across the frontier. It goes without saying that it will immediately order an investigation, and will severely punish the frontier officials along the line Schabatz-Losnitza who have been lacking in their duties and who allowed the authors of the crime of Sarajevo to pass.

9. The Royal Government will willingly give explanations regarding the remarks made in interviews by its officials, both in Servia and abroad, after the attempt, and which, according to the statement of the Imperial and Royal Government, were hostile toward the monarchy, as soon as the Imperial and Royal Government has (forwarded) it the passages in question of these remarks and as soon as it has shown that the

remarks made were in reality made by the officials regarding whom the Royal Government itself will see about collecting proofs.

10. The Royal Government will inform the Imperial and Royal Government of the execution of the measures comprised in the preceding points, in as far as that has not already been done by the present note, as soon as each measure has been ordered and executed.

In the event of the Imperial and Royal Government not being satisfied with this reply, the Royal Servian Government, considering that it is to the common interest not to precipitate the solution of this question, is ready, as always, to accept a pacific understanding, either by referring this question to the decision of The Hague International Tribunal or to the great powers which took part in the drawing up of the declaration made by the Servian Government on the 18-31 March, 1909.

Circular Note Issued by Austria-Hungary Denouncing Servia's Reply, July 26, 1914

The object of the Servian note is to create the false impression that the Servian Government is prepared in great measure to comply with our demands.

As a matter of fact, however, Servia's note is filled with the spirit of dishonesty, which clearly lets it be seen that the Servian Government is not seriously determined to put an end to the culpable tolerance it hitherto has extended to intrigues against the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy.

The Servian note contains such far-reaching reservations and limitations not only regarding the general principles of our action, but also in regard to the individual claims we have put forward that the concessions actually made by Servia become insignificant.

In particular our demand for the participation of the Austro-Hungarian authorities in the conspiracy on Servian territory has been rejected, while our request that measures be taken against that section of the Servian press hostile to Austro-Hungary has been declined, and our wish that the Servian Government take the necessary measures to present the dissolved Austro-phobe associations continuing their activity under another name and under another form has not even been considered.

Since the claims in the Austro-Hungarian note of July 23, regard being had to the attitude hitherto adopted by Servia, represent the minimum of what is necessary for the establishment of permanent peace with the Southeastern monarchy, the Servian answer must be regarded as unsatisfactory.

That the Servian Government itself is conscious that its note is not acceptable to us is proved by the circumstance that it proposes at the end of the note to submit the dispute to arbitration—an invitation which is thrown into its proper light by the fact that three hours before handing in the note, a few minutes before the expiration of the time limit, the mobilization of the Servian Army took place.

Austria-Hungary's Declaration of War Against Servia, July 28, 1914

The Royal Government of Servia not having replied in a satisfactory manner to the note remitted to it by the Austro-Hungarian Minister in Belgrade on July 23, 1914, the Imperial and Royal Government finds itself compelled to proceed to safeguard its rights and interests and to have recourse for this purpose to force of arms.

Austria-Hungary considers itself, therefore, from this moment in a state of war with Servia.

Note of the Russian Foreign Office, July 28, 1914

Numerous patriotic demonstrations of the last few days in St. Petersburg and other cities prove that the firm pacific policy of Russia finds a sympathetic echo among all classes of the population.

The Government hopes, nevertheless, that the expression of feeling of the people will not be tinged with enmity against the powers with whom Russia is at peace, and with whom she wishes to remain at peace.

While the Government gathers strength from this wave of popular feeling and ex-

pects its subjects to retain their reticence and tranquillity, it rests confidently on the guardianship of the dignity and the interests of Russia.

The Czar's Personal Note to the Kaiser, July 31, 1914

I thank thee from my heart for thy mediation, which leaves a gleam of hope that even now all may end peacefully. It is technically impossible to discontinue our military operation, which has been rendered necessary by Austrian mobilization. We are far from wishing for war, and so long as negotiations with Austria regarding Servia continue my troops will not undertake any provocative action.

I give thee my word upon it, and I trust with my strength in God's grace and hope for the success of thy mediation at Vienna, and for our countries' peace and the peace of Europe.

The Kaiser's Reply to the Czar's Note, July 31, 1914

In answer to thy appeal to my friendship and thy prayer for my help, I undertook mediatory action between the Austro-Hungarian Government and thine. While this action was in progress thy troops were mobilized against my ally, Austria-Hungary, in consequence of which, as I have already informed thee, my mediation was rendered nearly illusory. Nevertheless, it continued. But now I am in possession of trustworthy advices concerning the serious war preparations on my eastern frontier as well.

My responsibility for the safety of my empire compels me to counter-measures of defense. In my endeavors for the maintenance of the peace of the world I have gone to the extreme limit of the possible. It is not I that shall bear the responsibility for the peril which now threatens the civilized world. I lay it to thy hand to avert it, even at this moment.

No one menaces the honor and might of Russia, which well could have waited upon the result of my mediation. The friendship for thee and thy empire bequeathed to me by my grandfather on his deathbed has always been sacred to me, and I have remained true to Russia when it was in grave distress especially in your last war. The peace of Europe can yet be conserved by thee if Russia decides to discontinue her military measures which threaten Germany and Austria-Hungary.

King George's Personal Appeal to the Czar, August 1, 1914

"I cannot help thinking that some misunderstanding has produced this deadlock. I am most anxious not to miss any possibility of avoiding the terrible calamity which at present threatens the whole world. I therefore make a personal apppeal to you to remove the misapprehension which I feel must have occurred, and to leave still open grounds for negotiation and possible peace.

"If you think I can in any way contribute to that all-important purpose, I will do everything in my power to assist in reopening the interrupted conversations between the powers concerned. I feel confident that you are as anxious as I am that all that is possible should be done to secure the peace of the world."

The Czar's Reply to King George's Appeal, August 1, 1914

"I would gladly have accepted your proposals had not the German Ambassador this afternoon presented a note to my Government declaring war. Ever since the presentation of the ultimatum at Belgrade, Russia has devoted all her efforts to finding some pacific solution of the question raised by Austria's action. The object of that action was to crush Servia and make her a vassal of Austria. The effect of this would have been to upset the balance of power in the Balkans, which is of such vital interest to my empire.

"Every proposal, including that of your Government, was rejected by Germany and Austria, and it was only when the favorable moment for bringing pressure to bear on Austria had passed that Germany showed any disposition to mediate. Even then she did

not put forward any precise proposal. Austria's declaration of war on Servia forced me to order a partial mobilization, though, in view of the threatening situation, my military advisers strongly advised a general mobilization owing to the quickness with which Germany can mobilize in comparison with Russia.

"I was eventually compelled to take this course in consequence of complete Austrian mobilization, of the bombardment of Belgrade, of concentration of Austrian troops in Galicia, and of secret military preparations being made in Germany. That I was justified in doing so is proved by Germany's sudden declaration of war, which was quite unexpected by me, as I had given most categorical assurances to the Emperor William that my troops would not move so long as mediation negotiations continued.

"In this solemn hour I wish to assure you once more that I have done all in my power to avert war. Now that it has been forced on me, I trust your country will not fail to support France and Russia. God bless and protect you."

Proclamation of President Poincaré Following the Decree of French Mobilization, August 1, 1914

"For some days the States of Europe have been considerably aggravated, and, notwithstanding the efforts of diplomacy, the horizon has darkened. At the present hour a greater part of the nations have mobilized their forces. Even the countries protected by neutrality conventions have deemed it their duty to take this measure as a precaution.

"The powers whose constitutional or military legislation differs from ours have, without issuing a decree of mobilization, begun and carried on preparations which, in reality, are equivalent to mobilization, and are but the anticipated execution of it.

"France, who always has affirmed her desire for peace, who on many a tragic day has given to Europe counsels of moderation and a living example of decorum, and who has multiplied her efforts to maintain the peace of the world, has now prepared herself for all eventualities, and has taken her first indispensable dispositions for the safeguarding of her territory.

"But our legislation does not permit the completion of these preparations without a decree of mobilization. Conscious of its high responsibility, and feeling that it would fail in its sacred duty if it did not take this measure, the Government has signed the decree.

"Mobilization is not war. Under the present circumstances it would appear, on the contrary, to be the best means of assuring peace with honor.

"Strong in its ardent desire of arriving at a peaceful solution of this crisis, the Government under cover of these essential precautions will continue its diplomatic efforts, and still hopes to succeed. It counts upon the coolness of the people not to give up to unjustified emotion. It counts upon the patriotism of every Frenchman, and it knows that there is not a single one who is not ready to do his duty at this hour.

"There are no longer any parties. There is an eternal France—a France peaceful and resolute. There is a fatherland of peace and justice, all united in calm vigilance and dignity."

Manifesto of the Czar to the Russian People upon Germany's Declaration of War, August 3, 1914

"By the grace of God, we, Nicholas II, Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias, King of Poland, and Grand Duke of Finland, &c., to all our faithful subjects make known that Russia, related by faith and blood to the Slav peoples and faithful to her historical traditions, has never regarded their fates with indifference.

"But the fraternal sentiments of the Russian people for the Slavs have been awakened with perfect unanimity and extraordinary force in these last few days, when Austria-Hungary knowingly addressed to Servia claims inacceptable for an independent State.

"Having paid no attention to the pacific and conciliatory reply of the Servian Government, and having rejected the benevolent intervention of Russia, Austria-Hungary

made haste to proceed to an armed attack, and began to bombard Belgrade, an open place.

"Forced by the situation thus created to take necessary measures of precaution, we ordered the army and the navy put on a war footing, at the same time using every endeavor to obtain a peaceful solution. Pourparlers were begun amid friendly relations with Germany and her ally, Austria, for the blood and the property of her subjects were dear to us.

"Contrary to our hopes in our good neighborly relations of long date, and disregarding our assurances that the mobilization measures taken were in pursuance of no object hostile to her, Germany demanded their immediate cessation. Being rebuffed in this demand, Germany suddenly declared war on Russia.

"Now it is not only protection of a country related to us and unjustly attacked that must be accorded, but we must safeguard the honor, the dignity, and the integrity of Russia and her position among the great powers.

"We believe unshakably that all our faithful subjects will rise with unanimity and devotion for the defense of Russian soil; that internal discord will be forgotten in this threatening hour; that the unity of the Emperor with his people will become still more close, and that Russia, rising like one man, will repulse the insolent attack of the enemy.

"With a profound faith in the justice of our work, and with a humble hope in omnipotent Providence in prayer, we call God's blessing on holy Russia and her valiant troops.

"Nicholas."

Personal Message from King Albert of Belgium to King George, August 2, 1914

"Remembering the numerous proofs of your Majesty's friendship and that of your predecessor, of the friendly attitude of England in 1870, and the proof of the friendship which she has just given us again, I make a supreme appeal to the diplomatic intervention of your Majesty's Government to safeguard the integrity of Belgium.

"Albert."

Telegram from Sir Edward Grey to British Ambassador Instructing Him to Deliver an Ultimatum to Germany, August 4, 1914

"We hear that Germany has addressed note to Belgian Minister for Foreign Affairs stating that German Government will be compelled to carry out, if necessary by force of arms, the measures considered indispensable.

"We are also informed that Belgian territory has been violated at Gemmenich.

"In these circumstances, and in view of the fact that Germany declined to give the same assurance respecting Belgium as France gave last week in reply to our request made simultaneously at Berlin and Paris, we must repeat that request, and ask that a satisfactory reply to it and to my telegram of this morning be received here by 12 o'clock tonight. If not, you are instructed to ask for your passports, and to say that His Majesty's Government feel bound to take all steps in their power to uphold the neutrality of Belgium and the observance of a treaty to which Germany is as much a party as ourselves.

"Edward Grey."

Statement of the British Foreign Office after the Proclamation of War on Germany, August 4, 1914

"Owing to the summary rejection by the German Government of the request made by His Britannic Majesty's Government that the neutrality of Belgium should be respected, His Majesty's Ambassador at Berlin has received his passports and His Majesty's Government has declared to the German Government that a state of war exists between Great Britain and Germany from 11 o'clock P. M., Aug. 4."

President Wilson's Tender of Good Offices, Made to Each of the Rulers of the States at War, August 5, 1914

"As official head of one of the Powers signatory to The Hague Convention, I feel it to be my privilege and my duty, under Article III of that Convention, to say to you in a spirit of most earnest friendship that I should welcome an opportunity to act in the interest of European peace, either now or any other time that might be thought more suitable, as an occasion to serve you and all concerned in a way that would afford me lasting cause for gratitude and happiness.

"WOODROW WILSON."

Statement of the British Foreign Office Following the Declaration of War on Austria-Hungary, August 13, 1914

"After having declared war on Servia and having thus taken the initiative in the hostilities in Europe, the Austro-Hungarian Government has placed itself, without any provocation from the Government of the French Republic, in a state of war with France; and after Germany has successively declared war against Russia and France she has intervened in this conflict by declaring war on Russia, who is already fighting on the side of France.

"According to information worthy of belief Austria has sent troops over the German frontier in such manner as to constitute a direct menace against France. In the face of these facts the French Government finds itself obliged to declare to the Austro-Hungarian Government that it will take all measures permitted to reply to these acts and menaces."

Russia's Appeal to the Poles, August 14, 1914

"The hour has sounded when the sacred dream of your fathers may be realized. A hundred and fifty years ago the living body of Poland was torn to pieces, but her soul survived, and she lived in hope that for the Polish people would come an hour of regeneration and reconciliation with Russia.

"The Russian Army brings you the solemn news of this reconciliation, which effaces the frontiers severing the Polish people, whom it unites conjointly under the scepter of the Czar of Russia. Under this scepter Poland will be born again, free in her religion, her language, and autonomous.

"Russia expects from you only the loyalty to which history has bound you. With open heart and a brotherly hand extended, great Russia comes to meet you. She believes that the sword which struck her enemies at Grunewald is not yet rusted.

"Russia, from the shores of the Pacific Ocean to the North Sea, marches in arms. The dawn of a new life begins for you. In this glorious dawn is seen the sign of the Cross—the symbol of suffering and the resurrection of a people."

Japan's Ultimatum to Germany, August 16, 1914

"We consider it highly important and necessary in the present situation to take measures to remove the causes of all disturbances of the peace in the Far East, and to safeguard the general interests as contemplated by the agreement of alliance between Japan and Great Britain.

"In order to secure a firm and enduring peace in Eastern Asia, the establishment of which is the aim of said agreement, the Imperial Japanese Government sincerely believes it to be its duty to give the advice to the Imperial German Government to carry out the following two provisions:

"First—To withdraw immediately from Japanese and Chinese waters German men-of-war and armed vessels of all kinds, and to disarm at once those which cannot be so withdrawn.

"Second—To deliver on a date not later than September 15 to the Imperial Japanese authorities, without condition or compensation, the entire leased territory of Kiao-chau, with a view to the eventual restoration of the same to China.

"The Imperial Japanese Government announces at the same time that in the event

of it not receiving by noon on August 24, 1914, an answer from the Imperial German Government, signifying its unconditional acceptance of the above advice offered by the Imperial Japanese Government, Japan will be compelled to take such action as she may deem necessary to meet the situation."

Japan's Declaration of War Against Germany, August 24, 1914

"We, by the Grace of Heaven, Emperor of Japan, seated on the Throne occupied by the same Dynasty from time immemorial, do hereby make the following proclamation to all our brave and loyal subjects:

"We hereby declare war against Germany, and We command our army and navy to carry on hostilities against that empire with all their strength, and We also command all Our competent authorities to make every effort, in pursuance of their respective duties, to attain the national aim, by all the means within the limits of the law of nations.

"Since the outbreak of the present war in Europe, the calamitous effects of which We view with grave concern, We, on Our part, have entertained hopes of preserving the peace of the Far East by the maintenance of strict neutrality. But the action of Germany has at length compelled Great Britain, Our Ally, to open hostilities against that country; and Germany is, at Kiao-chau, its leased territory in China, busy with warlike preparations, while its armed vessels, cruising the seas of eastern Asia, are threatening Our commerce and that of Our Ally. The peace of the Far East is thus in jeopardy. Accordingly, Our Government and that of His Britannic Majesty, after full and frank communication with each other, agreed to take such measures as may be necessary for the protection of the general interests contemplated in the Agreement of Alliance; and We, on Our part, being desirous to attain that object by peaceful means, commanded Our Government to offer, with sincerity, an advice to the Imperial German Government. By the last day appointed for the purpose, however, Our Government failed to receive an answer accepting the advice.

"It is with profound regret that We, in spite of Our ardent devotion to the cause of peace, are thus compelled to declare war, especially at this early period of Our reign, and while We are still in mourning for Our lamented Mother.

"It is Our earnest wish that, by the valor and loyalty of Our faithful subjects, peace may soon be restored and the glory of the Empire enhanced."

Message from the Kaiser to President Wilson, Charging the Use of Dum-dum Bullets by the Allies, and Explaining the Reasons for the Destruction of Louvain, September 7, 1914

"I consider it my duty, sir, to inform you, as the most notable representative of the principles of humanity, that after the capture of the French fort of Longwy my troops found in that place thousands of dum-dum bullets which had been manufactured in special works by the French Government. Such bullets were found not only on French killed and wounded soldiers and on French prisoners, but also on English troops. You know what terrible wounds and awful suffering are caused by these bullets, and that their use is strictly forbidden by the generally recognized rules of international warfare.

"I solemnly protest to you against the way in which this war is being waged by our opponents, whose methods are making it one of the most barbarous in history. Besides the use of these awful weapons, the Belgian Government has openly incited the civil population to participate in the fighting, and has for a long time carefully organized their resistance. The cruelties practised in this guerilla warfare, even by women and priests, toward wounded soldiers and doctors and hospital nurses were such that eventually my generals were compelled to adopt the strongest measures to punish the guilty and frighten the bloodthirsty population from continuing their shameful deeds.

"Some villages and even the old town of Louvain, with the exception of its beautiful town hall [Hôtel de Ville], had to be destroyed for the protection of my troops.

"My heart bleeds when I see such measures inevitable, and when I think of the many innocent people who have lost their houses and property as a result of the misdeeds of the guilty.

"WILHELM."

Reply of President Wilson to the Kaiser's Message, September 17, 1914

"I received your imperial Majesty's important communication of the 7th, and have read it with gravest interest and concern. I am honored that you should have turned to me for an impartial judgment as the representative of a people truly disinterested as respects the present war and truly desirous of knowing and accepting the truth.

"You will, I am sure, not expect me to say more. Presently, I pray God very soon, the war will be over. The day of accounting will then come when, I take it for granted, the nations of Europe will assemble to determine a settlement. Where wrongs have been committed their consequences and the relative responsibility involved will be assessed.

"The nations of the world have fortunately by agreement made a plan for such a reckoning and settlement. What such a plan cannot compass the opinion of mankind, the final arbiter in all such matters, will supply. It would be premature for a single Government, however fortunately separated from the present struggle, it would even be inconsistent with the neutral position of any nation which like this has no part in the contest, to form or express a final judgment.

"I speak thus frankly because I know that you will expect and wish me to do so as one friend should do to another and because I feel sure that such a reservation of judgment until the end of the war, when all its events and circumstances can be seen in their entirety and in their true relations, will commend itself to you as a true expression of sincere neutrality.

"WOODROW WILSON."

CHRONOLOGICAL LIST OF EVENTS

The following Chronology was compiled from the best sources available at the time of writing; but on account of the strict censorship it is subject to modification. Official reports have been scanty and vague as to dates and places of important operations, and definite announcements of decisive actions have often been delayed for days. Consequently there is confusion as to the exact sequence of events and the war will probably be far advanced before a strictly accurate account of its early stages can be given.

1914

JUNE 28.—Archduke Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, assassinated in Sarajevo.

JULY 23.—Austria sends an ultimatum to Servia.

JULY 27.—Sir Edward Grey proposes an international conference, but Austria and Germany decline.

JULY 28.—Austria declares war on Servia.

JULY 31.—The Kaiser demands that Russia discontinue mobilization.

AUGUST 1.—Germany declares war on Russia. Mobilization begun in France.

1914

AUGUST 2.—German forces enter Luxemburg, and Germany demands that Belgium give free passage for her troops to the French frontier. The demand is refused, and Belgium appeals to England.

AUGUST 4.—England sends an ultimatum to Germany, demanding that she respect Belgian neutrality. Germany refuses, and begins to attack Liège. She declares war on France.—President Wilson issues a proclamation of neutrality, and tenders the good offices of the United States to the nations at war.

1914

August 5.—England proclaims a state of war with Germany. Lord Kitchener is appointed Secretary of State for War.—German mine-layer "Koenigin Luise" sunk by British cruiser "Amphion."

August 6.—Austria declares war on Russia. German warships drive the Russian fleet from the western part of the Baltic.—British cruiser "Amphion" sunk by mine in North Sea.

August 7.—German troops enter Liège.—The French invade Alsace.

August 8.—Montenegro declares war on Austria. Portugal declares that she is an ally of Great Britain. Italy proclaims her neutrality. Austrian troops sent to the assistance of the Germans, and British troops to assist the French.

August 10.—France proclaims a state of war with Austria.

August 13.—England declares war on Austria.—German cruisers "Goeben" and "Breslau" take refuge in Constantinople.

August 15.—Japan sends an ultimatum to Germany, demanding evacuation of Kiao-chau in China.

August 17.—English forces begin landing in France. Belgian capital removed from Brussels to Antwerp.

August 20.—Belgian army retreats to Antwerp and German forces enter Brussels. Russians occupy Gumbinnen. Servians defeat Austrians at Loznitza.

August 21.—French forces withdraw from Lorraine.—The Germans begin the investment of Namur.

August 23.—Allied forces fall back to French frontier. Austria discontinues military operations against Servia. Japan declares war on Germany.

August 24.—German air-ship drops bombs into Antwerp, killing or wounding many persons.—British driven out of Mons.

August 25.—Austria declares war on Japan.—Germans reduce five of the nine forts protecting Namur.

August 26.—French cabinet resigns, and a new non-partisan cabinet is formed. Germans destroy Louvain, in revenge for alleged hostilities by the citizens. British take possession of the German colony of

1914

Togoland in West Africa. The British cruiser "Highflyer" sinks the "Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse."

August 27.—Japanese blockade Tsing-Tau.—Russians capture Tilsit.

August 28.—French forces withdraw from Alsace.—British cruiser squadron near Helgoland sinks three German cruisers and two destroyers.

August 29.—British expedition from New Zealand captures Germany's share of the Samoan Islands. Germans capture La Fère.

August 30.—Germans occupy Amiens.—Von Hindenberg defeats Russians under Rennenkampf in East Prussia.

September 1.—Name of St. Petersburg changed to Petrograd.—Army of General Von Kluck reaches Senlis, its nearest point to Paris, while his outposts come in touch with the outer forts of the capital. Russians at the end of a week's fighting defeat Austrians at Lemberg, and claim the capture of 82,000 prisoners.

September 2.—Japanese forces sent against Kiao-chau land at Lung-kow.

September 3.—Von Kluck swings southward to Meaux.—Rheims taken by the Germans.—Bordeaux becomes the temporary capital of France.—Russians enter Lemberg.

September 4.—Germans advance from Brussels and occupy Ghent and Termonde.

September 5.—Great Britain, France and Russia sign an agreement not to make peace with the enemy except by common consent.—British cruiser "Pathfinder" sunk by German submarine.

September 6.—French push back German right near Compiègne.—Army under the Duke of Württemberg begins a series of assaults on the French position between La Fère and Vitry-le-François.

September 7.—Von Kluck's army forced back still further from the Marne, necessitating a retreat of Von Bülow's army upon his left.—Maubeuge taken by Germans after a bombardment beginning August 26.—Austrian left wing defeated with heavy loss at Ravarusska.

1914

SEPTEMBER 8.—Allies deliver fierce attack against armies of Von Kluck and Von Bülow.

SEPTEMBER 9.—Von Kluck, hard pressed, escapes toward Soissons.

SEPTEMBER 10.—German armies on the right in full retreat, while the Crown Prince delivers counter attack at Revigny.—Servians capture Semlin.

SEPTEMBER 11.—Entire German army falls back to strong defensive positions, heavy rains impeding operations on both sides.—Australian expedition seizes Bismarck Archipelago and Solomon Islands.

SEPTEMBER 12.—Army under the Crown Prince of Bavaria retires into Lorraine after an unsuccessful attack upon Nancy.

SEPTEMBER 13.—British submarine "E-9" sinks German cruiser "Hela."

SEPTEMBER 14.—Allied army crosses the Aisne and reoccupies Rheims.—Belgian army sallies forth from Antwerp as far as Malines and Louvain.

SEPTEMBER 16.—Belgian Commissioners sent to Washington to protest against the destruction of Louvain and other alleged German atrocities received by President Wilson.

SEPTEMBER 17.—Servians retire from Semlin.

SEPTEMBER 18.—Rheims Cathedral wrecked by German shells.

SEPTEMBER 20.—British cruiser "Pegasus" surprised in Zanzibar harbor by German cruiser "Koenigsberg" and destroyed.

SEPTEMBER 22.—Russians capture Jaroslav and invest fortress of Przemysl.—British armored cruisers "Abonkir," "Hogue" and "Cressy" torpedoed and sunk by German submarine "U-9" with a loss of about 60 officers and 1,400 men.

SEPTEMBER 23.—French carry Péronne by storm.

SEPTEMBER 24.—Zeppelin drops bombs at Ostend, inflicting slight damage.—Outbreak of Asiatic cholera among Austrian troops admitted in Vienna.—Germans try unsuccessfully to land forces from transports at Windau on the Russian Baltic coast.

1914

SEPTEMBER 25.—German army under Von Hindenberg forces the Russians back as far as the Niemen.—Montenegrin troops enter Mostar.

SEPTEMBER 26.—British Indian troops land at Marseilles.—Outer forts of Antwerp attacked by Germans.

SEPTEMBER 28.—Passes over the Carpathian Mountains into Hungary occupied by Russian advance troops.

SEPTEMBER 29.—Allies hotly attacked by Germans at Noyon.—French make forward movement between Toul and Verdun.

OCTOBER 1.—Heavy fighting north of Cracow.

OCTOBER 3.—Russians state that the battle of Augustowo, in progress for a week, has ended in the complete rout of Germans, and their retreat to the Prussian frontier. Russians reach valley of the Magy in Hungary.

OCTOBER 4.—Berlin admits an outbreak of cholera among German troops, but says there is no danger of an epidemic.—The flanking movement of the Allies against the German right still continues without decisive results. Slight advances on their right flank claimed by French.—Several forts taken and Termonde occupied by German forces besieging Antwerp.—Prayers for peace and special services held in churches of all denominations in the United States in conformity with the proclamation of President Wilson.

OCTOBER 8.—The situation along the battle line in France is reported as stationary. In the north the right wing of the Germans and the left wing of the Allies have been extended beyond Lille, almost as far as the North Sea.—The Germans claim that the outer forts of Antwerp have been reduced, that the inner line is weakening.

OCTOBER 9.—Antwerp occupied by Germans.—The Russian War Office announces that Russia has conquered and occupied 39,000 square miles of Austrian territory. The Germans and Austrians have joined forces in Southwestern Poland, and are obstinately opposing the advance of the Russians toward Breslau and Cracow.

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